



**The Impact of Teaching Oral Communication Strategies on
English Language Learners in Libya**

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A doctoral thesis submitted to De Montfort University

In partial fulfilment of the requirements for the

Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

July 2014

Declaration

I dedicate this piece of work to my wife, children, mother and all family members who have simply believed in me.

Acknowledgements

Great gratefulness goes to Mr. David Boydon, for his patience, advice and continuous support through the whole process of writing this thesis. I consider myself very fortunate to have had Mr. Boydon as supervisor without whose guidance none of this would have been possible.

I would also like to thank my second supervisor Susan Barwick who supported me in times of trouble.

Special thanks are due to the cooperative teacher Mr. Edgard who has helped me to implement the field study and assisted me with data analysis.

I take this opportunity with joy and fulfilment to thank Mr Sid Navid who has contributed to the successful completion of my thesis.

I am also so appreciative to the students who participated many times in the study especially in the interviews.

And finally, thanks to all teachers and staff members in the English Department in De Montfort University for their help and support.

Abstract

Communication strategies (CSs) have been the focus of an increasing number of L2/FL studies. Some pedagogically-oriented studies indicate that teaching would be more effective if it were based on what learners actually did while learning a given language, including their use of CSs. However, the possibility of teaching CSs is a controversial issue. There are many people who think that CSs should not or cannot be taught, a belief which this thesis aims to disprove. The researcher's strong epistemological belief in the value of teaching CSs has motivated the choice of topic for this thesis.

This paper, then, explores the effect of teaching oral Communication Strategies on English language learners. It starts with an introduction to the institution where the study was carried out, giving a brief history of the English department at Misurata University and of the teaching and learning problems encountered there. Then, the rationale, purpose, and significance of the study are explained. A literature review follows, to shed light on different perspectives of CSs, the teaching of CSs, empirical research on CSs, and some factors which affect the use of CSs. Finally, research design, research tools, and the interventions used are explained in the methodology section.

The findings of this study reveal that explicit teaching of CSs enhanced English language learners' effective ability to communicate and raised their awareness of strategy use. The results also showed that language learners had a positive attitude towards the teaching of CSs and found these strategies useful for improving their conversation. There was also evidence that teaching CSs had a long lasting impact on the communication skills of Libyan English language students.

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List of abbreviations

CSs: Communication strategies

CS: Communicative Strategy

OCS: Oral Communication Strategies

LSs: Learning Strategies

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

L3: Third Language

TL: Target language

TGG: Transformational-Generative Grammar

MTL: Mother Tongue Language

FL: English Foreign Language Speakers

ESL: English Second language Learners

EFL: English Foreign language Learners

EACEA: Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency

GPCE: General peoples' Communities of Education

IELTS: International English Language Testing System

CELS: Certificates in English Language Skills

CEFR: Common European Framework of Reference for languages

NS: Native Speaker

NNS: Non-Native Speaker

AH: At Home Students

SA: Study Abroad Students

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

SLLS: Second Language learning Strategies

UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

INSET: In-Service Training to Language Teachers

“um”, “ah” and ‘er’: Pause Fillers Strategies

CELL: Centre for English Language Learning

ESBM: East Midlands School of Business and Management

TESOL: Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

CSsT: Communicative Strategies Training

Chapter One: Introduction

It has been claimed that ‘*no individual’s linguistic repertoire is perfect*’ (Maleki 2007). Both native and non-native speakers of any language often find themselves in a position where they struggle to communicate, having to use limited linguistic resources to put their meaning across (Faucette 2001: 1). The ways in which speakers attempt to fill the gap between what they want to communicate and their immediately available linguistic resources are known as communication strategies (CSs; Maleki 2007).

Researchers have raised the issue of CSs since the early 1970s. However, there is no consensus about their exact nature. Consequently, researchers have proposed and developed different typologies of CSs which describe several types of devices that learners use when they have communication difficulties such as ‘code switching’, ‘paraphrasing’, ‘filled pauses’ and ‘asking for help’ (Dörnyei and Scott 1997).

In early studies, researchers identified, defined, and classified CSs (Tarone 1981, Færch and Kasper 1983, Willems 1987, and Bialystok 1990, See 2.3 & 2.4). More recent studies, however, have been more empirical and have focused on pedagogical issues (Bejarano et al. 1997, Kasper and Kellerman, 1997, Lam and Wong 2000, Faucette 2001, Rossiter 2003, Nakatani 2005, and Naughton 2006, Maleki 2007). From these studies, many researchers have concluded that learners might benefit from the instruction of CSs (Dörnyei 1995, Dörnyei and Thurrell 1991, Lam 2005, Nakatani 2006, Maleki 2007 and Brown 2011, See 2.6 & 2.7 below).

Rabab’ah’s study, (2007), synthesizes previous studies in favour of CSs training. He claims that training language learners to use CSs helps them to keep the conversation going, obtaining more comprehensible input and producing more successful output, which facilitates language acquisition and performance. Nakatani (2005) also, suggests that the teaching of CSs can raise learners’ awareness of these strategies (psycholinguistic) which in turn could help develop their performance and TGG oral proficiency (Transformational-Generative Grammar).

On the other hand, other researchers such as Bialystok (1990) and Kellerman (1991) do not favour teaching CSs. Bialystok (1990) argues that “what one must teach

students of a language is not strategy, but language'', and Kellerman (1988) says ''Teach the learners more language, and let the strategies look after themselves''. Thus, teaching communication strategies remains a controversial issue (See 2.5 below).

1.1. Context of Study

Only recently has the Libyan government paid much attention to the learning and teaching of the English language, an attitude which might be attributed to the way the collapsed regime viewed learning foreign languages as 'obnoxious colonialism'. As the language of instruction is English in much university based education abroad, this presents a two-fold problem for Libyan international scholars. Comprehending an already complex subject becomes more complicated, because of the unfamiliar language in which the subject is presented. In a linguistically alien situation, learners are driven to adopt certain strategies such as CSs to cope with the English medium of instruction (additional problems are discussed in 1.2).

In Libya, the state education policy offers education in both Arabic and English media at higher education. However, in the Liberal Arts and Social Science streams, English language is also taught at an earlier stage 'high school' and almost all the instruction there is in English (99%). Like international students, these streams of students experience problems when they start studying English (See 3.4.1).

This study was conducted in the English Department at Faculty of Arts in Misurata University. The teaching of the English language started there in 1984, under the direction of the Faculty of Basic Science, to meet the needs of science students. In 1990, with the policy of liberalization and the growing demand for higher education, especially from women in Libyan society, a need was felt to establish a separate Faculty of Arts, with an independent Department of English. The department offered specialized courses in English language, such as 'Applied Linguistics', 'Grammar', 'Writing', 'Morphology', 'Syntax' and 'Language Skills', leading to the award of the Bachelor's degree in English. Since then, with the popularity of the English language courses, the department has grown in strength, and it is now the largest one with about 757 students, in the Faculty of Arts (2012/2013 Appendix A). As there is a great demand for the postgraduate courses in English, the Department of English has entered an agreement

with Nottingham Trent University, UK, and has offered English Language Teaching courses, leading to the award of the MA degree in ELT, since autumn 2008.

In the same year, the Faculty of Arts at Misurata University adopted a new scheme, introduced by the Libyan Education committee in 2008, in which a semester system of progression replaced an annual test (EACEA 2010, 2012). As the faculty's report states, this system 'allows students to select the courses according to their progress, their interest, the courses they already passed and according to the courses offered and pre-requisite requirements' (ibid: 6). The semester system has had a notable effect on class size, where the number of students in the English department has been reduced from 40 to 45 students to 20 to 25, which is considered an acceptable size in many western countries (cf. Blatchford et al. 2007). A sample of the first year students studying English language in the English department in Misurata University participated in this study (See 3.4 and 3.4.1).

In Libya, the General Peoples' Communities of Education (GPCE) is the authorised body for setting the criteria for testing and evaluating students' learning process in secondary and high school level (Orafi and Borg 2009). Every year, the administration officially issues documents which outline assessment criteria and methodology (See GPCE 2009). As a result, Libyan secondary and high school teachers rely heavily on examinations and grades as a common strategy for assessing their students (Alhmali 2007 and Orafi and Borg 2009). Alhmali (2007) criticised this system for its emphasis on 'the rote recall of information' and because it "holds great power over the learners at key times of the year" (Alhmali 2007: ii). Furthermore, Libyan high school students are strongly motivated towards obtaining good grades to guarantee a place at university. Therefore, exams in Libya have a great impact on learning and teaching approaches. It is important to note that the possible choices of academic discipline students can enrol in depend simply on how high their grades are (See Shihiba 2011).

Because of their importance for student prospects, the exams shift the learning emphasis in class from fostering communication skills and strategies to enhancing grammar translation skills. For these skills, priority is given to accuracy and to practicing the construction sentences in the classroom; the assessment focus is on

grammar. In pedagogic terms, this effect on teaching and learning is considered to be a negative backwash of the examination. The exams dictate what students learn, and what they learn is not necessarily what is most useful for them. As a result, the students focus more on learning what they expect to be tested on (Luo and Zhang, 2011).

In contrast, the focus of communicative language teaching is communicative competence, developed by using communication in the classroom. To achieve this, teachers are encouraged to develop activities in the classroom which enable students to practice communicating in different ways e.g. through tasks, roll plays, and information gap activities (Richards, 2006). Thus, the focus in communication strategies is improving communication skills and enhancing learners' ability to get their message across (Abunawas, 2012).

Little effort has been devoted to oral assessment, compared to writing and reading (Hughes, 2002). Speaking exams which could assess communicative strategies are generally used within larger exams that also test other skills. Designing speaking tests is considered to be a hard task because *“speaking is an interactive and interpersonal process which does not lend itself easily to the requirements of test designers”* (Hughes, 2002: 73). Also, the impermanent nature of speech makes it difficult to maintain consistency across spoken tests, due to subjectivity and discrepancies in the testers' evaluations (ibid).

Interestingly, Hughes (2002) made a comparison between the criteria testing of International English Language Testing System (IELTS) and Certificates in English Language Skills (CELS), where she noticed that although the two tests are highly similar in terms of evaluating grammatical accuracy, interactive communicative aspects such as verbal and nonverbal skills are absent from IELTS testing criteria. The emphasis in IELTS testing criteria is explicitly on accuracy and quantifiable data (IELTS 2002).

In the Libyan Higher Education sector, a major concern related to speaking testing is that each department in each university issues its own testing criteria (See Appendix B). This poses a problem for a robust mapping of levels into IELTS or the Common European Framework of Reference for languages (CEFR), as the Libyan education system is also not engaged with a formal mapping process.

For the purposes of this study, an assumption has been made that the participants are intermediate students because one of the course books used as a resource for designing the teaching material by the cooperating English language teachers is ‘*New Cutting Edge Intermediate 2005*’. However, the researcher found it extremely difficult to map existing criteria from tests such as IELTS with the criteria used to test Libyan first year English language learners in speaking, for the following reasons:

1) The level of the Libyan test designed by the cooperating teacher himself is uncertain.

When asked by the researcher; ‘*what learning materials did you use in testing language skills*’, the designer replied:

“*The materials we use in the subject are modules which I designed....Specific target speaking and listening skills are identified in the syllabus*” (Email Correspondence, see Appendix Q).

It is, however, not clear what syllabus was used and to what extent its level was internationally recognised. Despite the imprecision of the test designer’s response, the researcher examined the syllabus of the primary teaching text used, ‘*New Cutting Edge Intermediate*’ and determined that the relevant speaking skills implied by the syllabus are fluency, pronunciation, comprehension and vocabulary.

2. The definition of overall success or failure in the testing schema is ambiguous.

Researcher’s question: What constitutes an overall passing mark?

Cooperating teacher’s reply:

“*Language Skills I is a subject that addresses the speaking and the listening skills of students. Continuous Assessment is used. For the midterms, 5 specific speaking skills and 3 listening skills are determined. For each target skill, 5 points is assigned. This yields a total of 40 marks for the midterms. To get a mark of 5, the student is expected to perform the task correctly. A passing mark of 2.5 is given if the student is able to complete the task but with mistakes that slightly affected the meaning. The finals are divided into 30 points for speaking and 30 points for listening for a total of 100 points together with the 40 points in the midterms*” (ibid).

When it is stated, for example, *to get a mark of 5, the student is expected to perform correctly*, what does this imply about the other related skill scores? For example, could high marks in fluency and vocabulary added to zero marks in grammar constitute a pass? (See appendix D).

3. Marks' achievement

Researcher's question: How students can achieve 30 marks?

Cooperating teacher's reply:

“There are two evaluators in the speaking exam. Each evaluator gives 15 points. Fifteen points can be achieved by looking at the descriptive criteria for each identified elements in the rubrics which the students must be able to perform” (ibid).

Fluency: Speech rate is very natural.

Vocabulary: Word choices are well chosen to aid the listener's understanding.

Pronunciation: Shows accurate pronunciation of individual sounds.

Comprehension: The speaker's knowledge of the subject is accurate throughout.

Grammar: All sentences consistently emphasized the ideas clearly and logically.

Stating that *“the speech rate is very natural”* is to a degree imprecise in the sense that probably only native speakers have such ability (ibid).

4. Duration of the course.

Researcher's question: For how many semesters do they study language skills?

Cooperating teacher's reply:

Three semesters: Language Skills I, Language Skills II and Language Skills III.

Again, it is not clear how progression is reflected in the testing rubric and if the same testing criteria rubric is used to evaluate students in advanced semesters or courses?

No correlation was found between IELTS and the testing criteria used by the English department in the Faculty of Arts. This reflects the fact that language testing criteria employed in Libyan universities lack some formal aspects of standard testing techniques which are used in many Western countries. Moreover, there is evidence that the testing format used in some universities in Libya does not conform to international standardisation practice (cf. Shihiba, 2011). However, the vagaries of Libyan English levels assessment are outside the scope of this study of communication strategies, and do not impinge on its results.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

The nature of the problem is twofold:

Firstly, learners whose education has been in their first language (L1) transferring to a new situation where the medium of instruction is a different language (L2), can face problems in following instructions, comprehending textbooks, writing notes and essays, and generally communicating effectively. Compared with first language acquisition, learning another language is often fraught with additional difficulties. In a foreign language context, speaking is considered to be a difficult skill even after several years of learning.

In Taiwan for instance, although English language learners study English for several years, neither their proficiency level nor their confidence develops (Huang, 2010). Similarly, Yang and Gai (2010) noticed that even though Chinese English language learners at the English department of Shandong Jiaotong University are good at reading and writing, their listening and speaking skills are deficient.

Chuanichaisit and Prapphal (2009) also, argue that Thai students, especially low level ones, do not communicate successfully which they attributed to a misuse of some CSs and a lack of basic grammar and vocabulary. Ellis (2003: 69) explains that “maintaining a conversation is often effortful for learners because they lack both the linguistic resources to understand what is said to them and to make themselves understood”. This explanation seems to fit the Libyan context, where students find it difficult to communicate in English both as a foreign language and as a language of instruction.

As has been shown by UNESCO (1994 cited in Elhensheri, 2004), the proficiency and achievement levels of Libyan learners studying English as a foreign language are limited. At Misurata University, students majoring in English language at high school entering the English department are often unable to communicate in English language effectively enough to carry out university-level work. This might be attributed to the traditional way in which foreign languages are taught to Libyan students (Orafi and Borg, 2009 and Shihiba, 2011). It is hoped that this research will help to improve the methods.

The second major aspect of the problem, with specific reference to Libyan education, is that it has been found that students entering university with an experience of three to four years of instruction of English at high school still have difficulty in daily communication (Shihiba, 2011). It has also been observed that in terms of English language communication, students in high schools have more problems in productive skills than in the receptive skills (ibid). One of the causes might be that the teaching is focused on vocabulary and grammar out of context, so there is no emphasis on the teaching of productive skills such as writing and speaking. Students also have little opportunity to learn English through natural interaction in the target language. In general, it is through formal instruction in classrooms that Libyan students learn English language, and often learners are exposed to English language only in the classroom. As a result, when students engage in authentic communicative situations, they often lack the necessary vocabulary, linguistic knowledge and the interaction skills to get their meaning across, so they cannot keep the interaction going for an extended period of time (Orafi and Borg, 2009).

Libyan students acquire English for a Libyan-specific purpose, i.e. to enter universities, or to obtain some kind of qualification in Libyan society. This purpose might have little value elsewhere, in the sense that students do not communicate or interact with others in the 'open seas world' outside the Libyan 'fish bowl' (cf. Yoshida, 2002 cited in Tarone, 2005: 2). In this context, teachers only teach the basic grammatical structures, mainly in their and the students' L1, which is Arabic. Orafi and Borg (2009: 251) observe that "English language teachers in Libya typically graduate from university with undeveloped spoken communication skills in English. In the classroom, it is the teacher who speaks and the learners are merely passive listeners.

Thus, the communication channel between students and teachers is ineffective because of the reluctance of students to interrupt the one way communication from the high status teacher (cf. Hofstede, 1997).

The emphasis in the above context is on enhancing grammar translation skills, rather than fostering communication skills (cf. Chomsky's 1965 TGG/Psycholinguistic theory). Teaching vocabulary and grammar alone does not result in a considerable improvement of the learners' oral production. In addition to having knowledge of forms, meanings and functions, learners must be able to use this knowledge to convey the intended meaning appropriately. It is claimed that introducing CSs, especially to learners with low proficiency, helps them to derive some motivation for learning the target language (TL) as they develop a sense of at least being able to do something with the language (Willems 1987).

Another difficulty is that learning a target language (TL) is different from learning a mother tongue language 'MTL' (Bhela, 1999). English, along with other European languages, is written from left to right, whereas Arabic (MTL) is written the opposite way. Some researchers such as Rabab'ah (2005 a) argue that differences between the TL and MTL might make problems for learners who will need to not only mentally restructure their way of thinking, but also compensate for their deficiency in TL knowledge through the use of CSs.

Among the teachers, a possible lack of training is another problem which can have an effect on students. Teachers may have not have had training on the usage of communication skills and interactional activities in their classrooms. Jiamu (2001: 314) argues that facilitating the learners' acquisition of communication skills obliges language teachers to be aware of the teaching methods they adopt, e.g. to distinguish and combine the declarative 'knowing that' and the procedural 'knowing how' forms of knowledge. The former consists of description of facts, events, and methods. The latter is manifested in performance, and involves procedural motor, cognitive or mental skills. The focus in this case is on practice.

Thus, the primary goal for language teachers should be not only noticing the gaps in students' knowledge of the TL when they attempt to communicate, but also addressing these with the right pedagogic strategy, to optimize the results of teaching

and learning (Jiamu, 2001). As suggested by Rababah (2007), developing CS instruction can be beneficial to both teachers and learners. It motivates learners to engage in the learning process, and increases their language output. It also helps teachers to be more aware of their teaching techniques. Moreover, Lam (2006) suggests that in order to improve learners' language learning, EFL teachers need to understand what CSs their learners use and encourage lower proficiency learners to use CSs in their learning process.

Echoing this suggestion, Macaro (1997) and Grenfell and Harris (1999, cited in Gallagher Brett, 2001) also maintain that the self-confidence and learner autonomy of low achievers can be increased through strategy training. The problem with productive skills of Libyan English language learners might be due to natural shyness of the students or a lack of effective teaching techniques. The researcher provided students with a training programme to overcome these problems to help them engage effectively in the TL. An effort was also made to improve the teaching methodology in use, by introducing new techniques (4.4.1.1).

1.3. Rationale of the Study

Recent research in English as a second language/foreign language (ESL/EFL) has focused on learner-centred behaviour and led to the identification and study of learning strategies (LSs) and CSs, for the integration of these strategies in the language classroom. (Færch and Kasper, 1983a; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Dörnyei, 1995; Dörnyei and Scott, 1997; Tarone, 1980,1977; Faucette ,2001; Chamot, 2005; Nakatani, 2005; Lam, 2005, 2006; Rabab'ah, 2005, 2007; Ya-nim, 2007; and Zare, 2012). Researchers such as Oxford (1990) and O'Malley and Chamot (1990) describe LSs as useful tools for learners to independently capitalize on the language input they receive in the classroom. Oxford and Green (1995: 262) observe that LSs "encompass a wide range of behaviours that can help the development of language competence in many ways".

Canale and Swain (1980) propose a model of 'communicative competence', where they differentiate between CSs and LSs, proposing that the former is related to language use whereas the latter treats 'learning as a goal'. However, Faucette (2001)

argues that the two strategies (LSs and CSs) both underpin the importance of developing the strategic competence of language learners. Canale and Swain (1980, cited in Cohen and Macaro, 2007: 208) define strategic competence as “verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence”. In this model, ineffective communication is seen as partly the result of an inappropriate use and choice of strategies (Faucette 2001). Some of these variables are considered in more detail in chapter two in (2.9).

Tarone (1981) on the other hand, elucidates an area of confusion in the literature of SLA, when CSs are mistakenly interchanged with other notions, such as production strategies and LSs. She argues that despite the fact that production strategies deal with the use of language just like CSs, they lack the interactional function, especially when learners negotiate for meaning. She adds that LSs encompass the development linguistic and sociolinguistic competence, and the purpose of using these strategies “is not to communicate but to learn”. She believes that ‘the relationship’ between LSs and CSs is a complicated one (ibid: 290).

Researchers such as Oxford (1990) and Dörnyei (1995) advocate the instruction of LSs and CSs to EFL/ESL learners. Oxford (1990, 2003) encourages language teachers to consider the direct teaching of learning strategies, which in turn would help language learners to become aware of how using such strategies empowers them to become more efficient and effective communicators. Nakatani (2010) on the other hand, argues that language learners are most likely to benefit from instruction on how to make effective use of (CSs).

Wenden (1985) reminds us of the old proverb which states: “Give a man a fish and he eats for a day. Teach him how to fish and he eats for a lifetime”. In language teaching and learning, this proverb might be interpreted to mean that if students are provided with answers, the immediate problem is solved, but if they are taught strategies to work out the answers for themselves, they may be empowered to manage their own learning. In this way, Bialystok (1990) argues that when learners are shown how to learn, they quickly accept responsibility and attribute success or failure to choices they make

(autonomous learners). The instruction of CSs, which is the backbone of the present study, will be discussed in more details in chapter two (2.7., 2.8.).

To date, Maleki (2010) has suggested that teaching CSs is not only feasible, but can play a major role in promoting language learning. However, teaching and training in these strategies is largely neglected, especially at university level, in Libya (cf. Orafi and Borg 2009, Elhensheri, 2004 and Shihiba, 2011). These studies focused on the pedagogic aspects of training teachers in the communicative approach and did not pay particular attention to the training of language learners to use CSs. This is a lacuna in research in Libya on the value of the teaching and use of CSs in EFL, which the current study attempts to fill.

The researcher, therefore, is interested in investigating how the effective use of selected CSs (see table 9 below) affects the learners' learning process, by equipping them with the strategies that they need to become autonomous learners. In addition, there is an interest in exploring the effects of teaching CSs to EFL learners at Misurata University and to what extent this can contribute to raising students and teachers' awareness of these strategies.

This study, then, sets out to contribute to the process of change in the Libyan language classroom. Resolving the uncertainty regarding the effectiveness of training on strategy use and task performance provides a further rationale for this study. Teaching CSs has received only limited attention in the research literature of many Non-European countries (Nakatani, 2005; Lam, 2006; Orafi and Borg, 2009). As mentioned above, in spite of the recognition by researchers of CS instruction in Western countries, a data base search has not been able to identify any study done in this particular field in Libya.

Previous researchers such as Dörnyei (1995), Manchon, Lam (2005) and Nakatani (2005; 2010) have suggested that further studies should investigate the effectiveness of teaching communication strategies. Lam (ibid) comments that studies on strategy instruction are still relatively uncommon in many ESL/EFL contexts. This presents an opportunity for the researcher to investigate in depth the effectiveness of teaching certain CSs to EFL learners at the Faculty of Arts at Misurata University, to understand how CSs are used by them, and to evaluate their usage of these strategies, providing a further contribution in this field of study.

My previous and current experience as an ESL student and teacher, and the disappointments through which I have gone, have prompted me to work on this problem. After graduating, I had the opportunity to study in England for my Master's degree. During this period of study, I had practical experience of cooperative learning, student-centred classrooms, and active participation in classrooms. I have learned that these notions are greatly emphasized by many European and American educators. Obviously, I have had first-hand experience of how English is taught in Libya. Since I stand between two cultures, I am well-positioned to contribute to the discourse on teaching English as a foreign language. I will bring my experience and history to bear on this inquiry which, I hope, will add to this study's strength and credibility.

The anticipated original contributions to knowledge of this study are:

1. To bring change to Libyan language classrooms by investigating the effect of teaching some CSs such as 'reduction strategies', 'achievement strategies', 'social-interaction strategies' and 'modified-interaction strategies', to (EFL) learners..
2. To raise awareness of the importance of CSs use, so that learners are trained to know why, when, and how use these strategies effectively and appropriately, to develop their confidence and become autonomous learners.
3. To establish a framework strategy for teachers to implement the teaching of CSs.
4. To contribute to the second/foreign language research in the field of teaching CSs.
5. To make a broad contribution by encouraging teachers, researchers and examiners to include CSs in their language testing methods.

1.4. Purpose of the Research

This study aims to ascertain how strategy training affects some aspects of CS use and how the effective use of CSs reflects on the learners' learning process. Does it equip them to become autonomous learners? It is hoped that this exploration of the effects of teaching CSs to English foreign language (EFL) learners at Misurata University will not only raise students and teachers' awareness of the importance of CSs but also contribute to general research in this field. It has been argued that teaching CSs helps English language learners at university level become more aware of the ways in which they learn most effectively and, in addition, enhances their own comprehension and production of the target language (Rabab'ah, 2007).

It has also been claimed that training language learners to use different types of CSs improves their linguistic ability to handle communication tasks, develops their confidence and fluency and promotes more effective learning. The training also helps learners to be explicitly aware of the nature of these strategies (Chen, 1990 and Rabab'ah, 2007). These aims can be clearly reached through:

1. Ascertaining the effectiveness of teaching CSs to English language learners and how far they are prepared to use them (i.e. the relationships between the teaching of CSs and their use).
2. Gathering information about learners' actions i.e. to investigate the frequency of CSs used in speaking activities/tasks.
3. Identifying the perceptions of first year learners of the teaching of CSs and factors affecting their perceptions.
4. Collecting data from the respondents in a natural setting to understand learners' behaviour, to correlate the relationship between different variables, and to formulate suggestions/recommendations for improving the teaching of CSs, thereby improving learning.

1.5. Aims of the Study

The main aim of this study is the improvement in English language learners' learning process:

1. Investigating the effectiveness of CSs and their contributions to the English language learners learning programme.
2. Identifying English language learners' perceptions towards the teaching of some CSs and their use along with other possible factors which might affect the learners' learning process.
3. Attempting to contribute towards the research of L2/FL teaching and communication strategies use.
4. Helping English language learners to become self-directed and autonomous learners.
5. Providing an alternative to traditional ways of teaching speaking skills to language learners in Libya, using achievable results to make learners and teachers' aware of the importance of using CSs to develop speaking ability.
6. Analysing the learning situation of English language learners in Libya and giving recommendations for further studies in this field.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

This chapter gives the background of the history of CSs in pedagogic research and investigates the definitions and classifications made by some researchers. The review starts with an overview of CSs. This is followed by a discussion of two perspectives on CSs, some definitions given to CSs, and various typologies proposed for them. Then two different views of the teachability of CSs, along with their empirical studies are presented, and finally, the relationship between English language proficiency and the use of CSs is reviewed.

2.1.1. An Overview of Communication Strategies

The first to use the term CS for one of the processes affecting L2 learning was Selinker (1972 cited in Dörnyei and Scott 1997). CSs were claimed to be essential for the process of learning L2, but were not discussed in detail. In her report, Savignon (1972) recognised the importance of CSs (she refers to CSs as ‘coping strategies’) as a component of language teaching and training.

Researchers such as Dörnyei and Scott (1997), Færch and Kasper (1983a), Tarone (1980) and Nakatani (2010) argued that the use of communication strategies not only solves learners’ communication problems, but also enhances the learner’s interaction in TL, which in turn, improves their oral proficiency.

At a small European conference in 1973 in Romania, Váradi characterised ‘message adjustment’ as phenomena or strategies which can be used by L2 Hungarian learners to solve their communication problems. However, Váradi’s paper (1973), which was not published until 1980, showed a significant performance effect for high level learners, whereas low level learners still struggled to convey their message in the TL. Dörnyei and Scott (1997: 175) considered Verdi’s study as ‘the first systematic analysis of strategic language behaviour’ of L2 learners.

Another definition of CSs was provided by Tarone, Cohen, and Dumas in a paper published in 1976. Four types of CSs generally found in inter-language

phenomena, which include phonology, morphology, syntax and lexicon, were identified in their taxonomy (Tarone et al. 1976).

This terminological framework gave Tarone the idea of conducting the first empirical study of CSs in 1977. Tarone's study investigated in more detail the use of CSs employed by English language learners in speech. Definitions and a typology consisting of five types of CSs (avoidance, paraphrase, conscious transfer, appeal for assistance and mime) were provided to adult English language learners. Dörnyei and Scott (1997) assert that Tarone's classification is considered to be the starting point in this field of research.

In 1980s, some researchers such as Cohen and Swain (1980), Savignon (1983) and Færch and Kasper (1983), acknowledged the role of CSs in L2 learning research. For instance, in their framework of 'communicative competence', Cohen and Swain (1980) recognised strategic competence as a component which entails devices that are used to solve problems in communication. These problem-solving devices are CSs.

In the 1990s, Bialystok published a very influential book, *Communication strategies: A Psychological Analysis of Second Language Use*. In it, definitions and theories of CSs were defined, explored and discussed. Bialystok's 1990 work suggested two important issues: taking the psychological process of speech production as a basis for studying CSs and teaching language structure rather than strategies to language learners.

During this period, other researchers examined the relationship between CSs and proficiency level (e.g. Chen, 1990 and Kebir, 1994), and the teaching pedagogy of CSs (e.g. Rost and Ross, 1991; Yule and Tarone, 1991, Dörnyei and Thurrell, 1991 and Dörnyei, 1995). Since then, increasing attention has been given to the instruction of CSs. The current study is part of this continuing focus on this area of research.

2.2. Why use Communication Strategies?

The main priority for many learning a second/foreign language is to communicate effectively in the TL. Communication can be defined as the process by which people negotiate, send and receive messages (Rubin and Thomson, 1994).

Learners use CSs for various reasons. As interpreted by Bialystok (1990) interlocutors consciously and intentionally use CSs to solve communication problems in L2/FL. Ellis (1994) argues that learners choose to paraphrase a word or phrase whenever they do not know its meaning and this action is considered as part of a problem solving issue. Tarone (1980) asserts that learners use CSs to paraphrase, transfer a word or phrase from L1 to L2, and appeal for assistance.

Salomone and Marshal (1997) think that teaching CS can significantly improve learners' use of circumlocution. In his study, Dörnyei (1995) found that CS training might help L2 development. Rabab'ah (2005 a) believes that there are three reasons for CS training: Firstly, CS use can lead to learning by eliciting unknown language items from the interlocutor, especially appeal for assistance; Secondly, it is the means by which conversation continues; Thirdly, CS use helps learners solve their communication problems and achieve their communicative goals (ibid: 194).

In her classification, Tarone mainly focuses on negotiation of meaning. Poulisse and Schils (1989) confirm that learners can master the TL if they understand how to use CSs. In fact, they highlight the use of CSs by learners as part of a language achievement process. As mentioned in the first chapter, a search of the literature reveals that while some researchers have examined CSs and their impact on language learners (Wong-Fillmore, 1979; Bialystok, 1990; Tarone, 1980; Ellis, 1994; Færch and Kasper, 1980a; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Canale and Swain, 1980; and Dörnyei, 2002), no such study has been conducted on Libyan students.

A review of some of the most recent and relevant studies identifies gaps in previous research (as discussed in section 2.8) which the present study will attempt to fill. In addition to gaps in research, this paper will consider opinions of the functional value of using CSs. For instance, Wong-Fillmore (1975/1979 cited in Cohen and Macaro 2007), examined how communicative competence was increased when five Mexican children interacted with American peers for nine months. She maintains that language learning strategies facilitate the development of communicative competence once communication takes place. Wong-Fillmore focussed mainly on CSs, rather than LSs (ibid: 13). She presented two types of strategies which are related to the learner's

involvement in the learning situation: ‘get some expressions’ and ‘make the most of what you know’ (Ellis 1994: 535).

Færch and Kasper (1983) drew attention to the potentiality of planning process of CSs (psycholinguistic approach). Færch and Kasper contended that L2 learners use CSs when they have problems executing their original communication plan. As a result, they resort to CSs, which are considered to be solutions to their limited interlanguage. In this model, CSs are categorised as an appropriate learners’ choice. Learners can choose to avoid communication problems or to face them. Færch and Kasper (1983: 37) argue that *“the choice of strategy is not only sensitive to the underlying behaviour (avoidance/achievement) but also to the nature of the problem to be solved”*. Echoing this approach (Bialystok, 1990 cited in Takac 2008) in her psycholinguistic model examines more precisely the relationship between using second LSs in communicating in the target language and the process of identifying problems in order to encounter them.

Similarly, Bialystok (1990: 1) states that *“the familiar ease and fluency with which we sail from one idea to the next in our first language is constantly shattered by some gaps in our knowledge of a second language”*. A word, a structure, a phrase, a tense marker and an idiom are forms of what she calls gaps. In her view, the process of dealing with these gaps is characterised by using CSs. She adds that the implementation of a particular strategy to solve a specific communication problem is determined by the choice of the learner and task in which that problem occurs (ibid: 8).

Oxford (1990), one of the most influential researchers in the field of SLLS, has contributed greatly to the identification and examination of strategies in terms of teachability and learnability. She regards strategies as vital in SLLS because they facilitate the learning process, help learners to communicate with other interlocutors, and lead them to be self-directed and autonomous. In her model, she categorises strategies as direct and indirect. Cognitive strategies, which are considered to be direct, along with memory and compensation strategies, involve a more thorough understanding through visualisation and embedding in personal life experiences e.g. learners summarise and recognise information and practice structures in formal situations. She also argues that cognitive strategies are very common among language

learners (ibid: 34). Compensation strategies subsume such devices as gestures and circumlocutions where linguistic ability is absent.

In contrast, the indirect strategies consist of metacognitive, affective, and social strategies (Oxford, 1990). Affective strategies for instance are concerned with the emotions and feelings of the learner. The proficiency level of a language learner increases when they control their feelings and anxieties Oxford (2003). However, Mullins (1992 cited in Oxford, 2003) found that affective strategies had less influence on the proficiency level of foreign language Thai students. This might be attributed to the fact that affective strategies are no longer needed when their level of proficiency has sufficiently progressed.

Finally, it has been suggested that social strategies, 'seeking help from other peers', aid sociolinguistic competence (ibid). It might be worth mentioning, as Oxford (1990) asserts, that many people consider communicative competence only in relation to speaking and tend to ignore other skills (e.g. listening, reading, and writing).

Following Tarone's model, Ellis (1994) classifies strategies into three types, production, communication, and learning strategies. They are discussed as follows:

- 1- Production strategies: used to produce language by using one's own linguistic ability,
- 2- Communicative strategies: deal with problems while communicating, and
- 3- Learning strategies: employed to develop linguistic as well as sociolinguistic competence in the target language (ibid: 396).

Takac (2008) argues that the problem with this model is that it is not clear whether learners want to communicate or learn. In connection with this criticism, Ellis recognises the importance of communication tasks as a part of classroom's teaching activities. Here, he maintains that teachers should provide their learners the opportunity to practice the target language. Nonetheless, he suggests that 'the real purpose of the task' is that learners learn how to use the language, rather than achieve specified outcomes (2003: 8). Unlike Ellis, Canale and Swain (1980 cited in Cohen and Macaro, 1997) believe that CSs are most likely to be acquired in real-life communication and not developed through classroom practice. Their argument is valid only if the teaching

concerned focuses on correcting learners' errors, rather than 'fluent communication' (cf. Jidong 2011: 93).

According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 43) "communication strategies are particularly important in negotiating meaning where either linguistic structures or sociolinguistic rules are not shared between a second language learner and a speaker of the target language". Thus, EFL learners may employ CSs to negotiate meaning and they should be encouraged to practice language skills in order to lessen the anxiety which might arise from lack of linguistic knowledge (ibid: 215).

The studies presented above are for the most part based on untested assumptions and reasoning. Therefore, there is a need to test whether, in fact, teaching language learners to use CSs does make a difference. In this study, the teaching of CSs included actual practice where EFL learners were informed about the CSs strategies to be used and how and when to use them (See 3.7).

2.3. Definitions of Communication Strategies

In the field of SLA, researchers have found it difficult to reach agreement on a rigorous definition of communication strategies (Bialystok, 1990). Various definitions have been proposed by researchers:

Tarone (1980) defines communication strategies as 'the mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures are not shared'.

Færch and Kasper (1980: 81) uses a definition of CSs as 'potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal'

Canale (1983) defines CSs as attempts to 'enhance the effectiveness of communication';

Bygate (1988) defines communication strategies as 'ways of achieving communication by using language in most effective way';

Dörnyei (1995) suggests an extension of the definition of communication strategies as a primary purpose of negotiating meaning;

Dörnyei & Scott (1997) view a CS as a conscious technique used to achieve a communicative goal; and finally

Maybin (2002) defines communication strategies as action taken to better understand or be understood when speaking with another person.

The above definitions of CSs show that many researchers see them as ways of achieving communication by using a specific device. These definitions are different in terms of their details. However, all definitions give CSs the same aim, which is solving communication problems. Bialystok (1990:3) asserts that these definitions have three main features, namely, 'problematicity', 'consciousness, and 'intentionality'.

According to Dörnyei and Scott (1997: 177), researchers like Tarone (1977) and Færch and Kasper (1983) "saw communication strategies, as verbal or nonverbal 'first-aid' devices used to compensate for gaps in learners' L2 proficiency". Other researchers (Corder, 1977; Stern, 1983; and Váradi, 1973) also view CSs as devices used to overcome communication problems. In this perspective, CSs are claimed to be part of an L2 problem-solving effort, only used when a speaker perceives at the planning stage that there is a problem which may interrupt communication.

The term 'problematicity' is considered to be one of the common features of the CSs definitions. However, Dörnyei and Scott (1997: 183) argue that this term does not adequately define CSs. It is restricted to one type of problem, namely, the gaps in the learners' knowledge and neglects other types of problems i.e. 'own performance-problems', 'other-performance problems' and 'processing time pressure'. Less restrictively, a number of researchers broaden the term to cover these three types of problems (ibid: 183).

With 'own performance-problems', the speaker realises that there is something wrong in what they say, so they resort to devices such as self-repairing, self-rephrasing, and self-editing. In 'other-performance problems', the speaker perceives that there is a problem in the interlocutor's speech and they resort to various negotiation strategies. In 'processing time pressure', the speaker plans and processes what they attempt to say in order to gain more time e.g. using fillers and hesitation devices. However, CSs can still

be used in the absence of problems. For example, learners may use discourse markers such as 'yeah' or 'you know' to keep the conversation going, and they may also use body language to achieve other goals.

Another feature or criterion, which Bialystok (1990) posits, is consciousness. Consciousness is implicit in some definitions proposed for CSs. Canale and Swain, (1980) and Færch and Kasper (1983b) consider CSs as potentially consciously developed verbal or nonverbal plans. Færch and Kasper (1983b) point out that learners develop plans which may or may not be conscious as part of language production and that the consciousness changes according to occasion. The problem with the concept of consciousness is that it can be interpreted in a variety of ways in the context of CSs. It can refer to being conscious of a certain language problem, or of the attempt to deal with the problem; to using an alternative plan, or to the execution of the plan. The other problem with defining CSs as conscious devices is that learners tend to choose only certain elements of a plan. As a result, learners frequently use a small set of language elements when they encounter problems (cf. Dörnyei and Scott, 1997).

A final feature, intentionality, refers to the assumption that the speaker has control over the strategy that is selected and that the choice is a response to the perceived problem (Bialystok, 1990: 5). Bialystok (1990) and Dörnyei (1995) mention intentionality in their definitions of CSs. The implication of CSs being intentional is that there would be systematic relationships between the use of specific CSs and specific requirements of the communicative situation. Thus, one would expect that learners would select a strategy according to relevant factors, such as the learner's level of proficiency, the nature of the concept being communicated, and the conditions under which communication is occurring.

To sum up, CSs are generally defined as strategies used to overcome problems resulting from an inadequate knowledge of the second/target language. Dörnyei and Scott (1997: 178) consider Tarone's (1981) definition as wider than the other definitions (e.g. Færch and Kasper 1983) in the sense that it involves an interactional perspective, in which two interlocutors attempt to agree on 'a communicative goal'. For the purpose of this study, the term CSs is defined as devices employed by learners in an interactive situation, to achieve a communicative task.

2.4. Classification of Communication Strategies

As mentioned previously, a study of the strategies used by L2 learners to convey meaning in the face of communication breakdowns emerged in the early 1970s. Since then, a significant contribution to the classification of CSs has been made by researchers. This includes the work of Tarone (1977, 1983); Færch and Kasper (1983); Bialystok (1990); and Dörnyei (1995). Many different typologies of CSs have been proposed:

2.4.1. Tarone's Typology

Tarone (1981) classifies CSs into three types:

1. Paraphrase
a. Approximation: <i>the learner uses of a single TL vocabulary item or structure, which s/he knows is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker</i>
b. Word coinage: <i>the learner creates a new word to communicate a desired concept</i>
c. Circumlocution: <i>the learner describes the characteristics of the objects instead of using the appropriate target language item</i>
2. Borrowing (Conscious transfer)
a. Literal translation: <i>the learner translates word for word from the native language</i>
b. Language switch: <i>the learner uses the native language term without bothering to translate</i>
c. Appeal for assistance: <i>the learner asks for the correct term</i>
d. Mime: <i>the learner uses nonverbal strategies in place of a lexical item</i>
3. Avoidance
a. Topic avoidance: <i>the learner attempts not to talk about aspect in the TL s/he does not know</i>
b. Message abandonment: <i>the learner stops in the mid-utterance because s/he unable to continue</i>

(Table 1: Typology of Tarone's conscious CSs, 1981: 286-87)

Tarone's (1981) classification focuses mainly on three types of CSs: avoidance, paraphrase, and borrowing strategies.

Avoidance consists of topic avoidance and message abandonment. The former takes place “when the learner simply does not talk about concepts for which the vocabulary or other meaning structure is not known” whereas the latter takes place “when the learner begins to talk about a concept but is unable to continue due to lack of meaning, and stops in mid-utterance” (Tarone 1980: 429).

Paraphrase involves approximation, word coinage and circumlocution. Tarone (1980) argues that approximation is used by learners when ‘a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker’. Learners attempt to use word coinage when ‘[s/he] makes up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept’.

Circumlocution is used when ‘the learner describes the characteristics or elements of the object or an action instead of using the appropriate target language switch’ (ibid 429). Borrowing includes four strategies: literal translation, language switch, appeal for assistance and mime. When the learner employs literal transition strategy, they translate word for word from the native language. In the case of language switch, the learner does not bother to translate, instead they switched to the native term. In appealing for assistance, the learners clarify the meaning of a word or a structure by asking each other, whereas mime strategy involves the use of nonverbal strategies such as gesture.

As will be seen, in Tarone’s model, avoidance is similar to the reduction strategies in Dörnyei (1995), Færch and Kasper (1993), and Willems (1987), with paraphrase and borrowing as sub-types of achievement strategies. Mime and appeal for assistance are viewed by Tarone (1977 cited in Bialystok, 1990: 39) as distinct categories, while in Tarone (1981) these two strategies are classified as borrowing strategies.

2.4.2. Dörnyei's Typology

Dörnyei's classification of CSs is based on the work of Váradi (1973), Tarone (1977), and Færch and Kasper (1983). He classified CSs into three types:

<p>1. Avoidance or reduction strategies</p> <p>1. Message abandonment: <i>leave a message unfinished because of language difficulty</i></p> <p>2. Topic avoidance: <i>avoiding talking about a topic because of vocabulary or structure difficulty</i></p> <p>2. Achievement or compensatory strategies</p> <p>3. Circumlocution: <i>describing the properties of the target object or action</i></p> <p>4. Approximation: <i>using an alternative lexical item which shares semantic features with the target word</i></p> <p>5. Use of all purpose words: <i>extending a general, 'empty' lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking</i></p> <p>6. Word coinage: <i>creating non-existing L2 word by applying a supposed L2 rule to an existing L2 word</i></p> <p>7. Use of non-linguistic means: <i>mime, gesture, facial expression, or sound imitation</i></p> <p>8. Literal translation: <i>translating literally a lexical item, idiom, compound word, or structure from L1 to L2</i></p> <p>9. Foreignizing: <i>using a L1 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology</i></p> <p>10. Code switching: <i>using a L1 word with L1 pronunciation or a L3 word with L3 pronunciation while speaking in L2</i></p> <p>11. Appeal for help: <i>asking for aid from the interlocutor either directly or indirectly</i></p> <p>3. Time-gaining strategies</p> <p>12. Use fillers or hesitation devices- <i>using filling words or gambits to fill pauses and to gain time to think</i></p>

Table 2: Dörnyei's typology of CSs, (1995: 58)

In avoidance or reduction strategies, learners attempt to alter, reduce, or abandon their 'intended message' (ibid: 57). Brown (2000) however, argues that the two types proposed by Dörnyei (avoidance and achievement strategies) reveal two different directions in communication. Avoidance strategies include two subtypes, namely message abandonment and topic avoidance. These strategies may be effective, but do not necessarily help students to learn a foreign language. For instance, learners not knowing an answer choosing to keep silent is an example of topic avoidance that might make them miss the real goal of the classroom activity, which is practicing the TL.

Achievement strategies, on the other hand, involve 'compensation for missing knowledge'. Dörnyei (1995) outlines nine types, which include circumlocution, word

coinage, foreignizing, approximation, literal translation, appealing for help and code switching strategies. Some of these are used frequently, while others may seldom be used. An example is foreignizing, which refers to the use of a L1 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology. Probably foreign English language learners will find it hard to use their L1 character to substitute for the pronunciation of an English word, simply because their L1 and English can be very different types of language (cf. Brown 2000). In the table above, strategies 3-11 are classified as achievement *or compensatory* ‘as they offer alternative plans for speakers to carry out their original communicative goal by manipulating available language, thus compensating somehow for their linguistic deficiencies’ Dörnyei (1995: 57).

Time-gaining strategies differ from other strategies in Dörnyei’s taxonomy because they are used for keeping the channel of communication open rather than substituting for missing language. Here, he extends the scope of CSs definitions. This extended scope, which includes and explores time-gaining strategies, is shared by the current study.

Some researchers such as Rubin (1987) and Rost (1994) drew attention to the importance of pause fillers in overcoming communication problems and mention them in their typologies of CSs. Bygate (1988: 14) also, observes that pause fillers are devices used by speakers to gain time and facilitate production of speech. On the other hand, researchers Færch and Kasper (1983) consider fillers or hesitation devices (sub-types of time-gaining strategies) as variables of speech performance, ‘temporal variables’, rather than CSs. Tarone (1980) also relates pause fillers to production strategies rather than CSs. She argues that production strategies deal with the efficient use of a linguistic system of a given language, and are not functionally interactional.

However, there are similarities between Dörnyei and Tarone’s classification of CSs. Both propose and elaborate seven similar types of CSs. These types include topic avoidance, message abandonment, circumlocution, approximation, word coinage, literal translation and appeal for help. For instance, Tarone (1977 cited in Bialystok, 1990: 40) defines approximation as “the use of a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common...”, and Dörnyei (1995 cited in Brown, 2000: 128) defines it as

“using an alternative term which expresses the meaning of the target lexical item as closely as possible”.

2.4.3. Bialystok's Typology

Bialystok (1990) classifies CSs into five types:

1. L1-Based-strategies a. Language switch: <i>inserting of a word or phrase from another language</i> b. Foreignizing: <i>some TL modification is applied to the L1 term</i> c. Transliteration: <i>some literal translation of a phrase is used</i> 2. L2-Based-strategies a. Semantic b. Descriptive c. Word coinage 3. Non-language strategies 4. Analysis-based strategies 5. Control-based strategies

(Table 3: Bialystok's typology of communication strategies, 1990)

Bialystok's (1990) classification of CSs is different from that of other researchers. She attempts to develop a psychological system of CS classification, which is based on her cognitive theory of language processing.

Within this framework, Bialystok conceptualized five strategies, namely, L1 based-strategies, L2 based-strategies, non-language strategies, analysis-based strategies, and control-based strategies. Consider, for example, the first two subtypes, L1 based-strategies and L2 based-strategies. In the former, language switch and literal translation are similar to Tarone's forms of conscious transfer. In the latter 'L2-based strategies', the sub-type semantic is similar to Tarone's approximation; description is related to

Tarone's circumlocution, and word coinage is exactly like Tarone's description. The list of CSs which is designed in the current study includes some of these strategies.

Another two subgroups in Bialystok's typology are analysis-based strategies, and control-based strategies. An analysis-based strategy tries 'to convey the structure of the intended concept by making explicit the relational defining features' (Bialystok, 1990: 133). In this strategy, the speaker expresses the intended concept after analysing it for distinctive defining features which the speaker knows they can formulate into English, using the structures and vocabulary of their competence.

2.4.4. Færch and Kasper's Typology

Færch and Kasper (1983a) classify communication strategies into two categories, reduction, and achievement, as in the following table:

<p>1. Reduction strategies</p> <p>1.1 Formal reduction: in which parts of linguistic system are avoided.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Phonology b. Morphology c. Syntactic d. lexical <p>1.2 Functional reduction: in which the speaker's communication intentions are abandoned or reduced</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Actional reduction: (speech act modality) i.e. learners makes specific utterances to show politeness b. Modal reduction c. Reduction of the propositional content: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (i) Topic avoidance (ii) Message abandonment (iii) Message replacement <p>2. Achievement strategies</p> <p>2.1 Compensatory strategies or 'non-cooperative strategies'</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Code switching b. Foreignizing c. Literal transfer d. IL based strategies or 'interlanguage strategies'

(i) Paraphrase
(ii) Generalisation
(iii) Word coinage
(iv) Restructuring
e. Cooperative strategies
(i) Direct
(ii) Indirect
f. Non-linguistic strategies
(i) Mime
(ii) Gesture
(iii) Initiation
2.2 retrieval strategies: <i>the learner attempts to retrieve, or remember, the optimal form</i>
a. Waiting for the term to appear
b. Appealing for formal similarity
c. Retrieve via semantic fields
d. Searching via other languages
e. Retrieve from learning situations
f. Sensory procedures

(Table 4: illustrates Færch and Kasper's typology of CSs, 1983: 52-3)

A reduction strategy is used when learners realise that they are about to produce an insufficient utterance and therefore avoid making it. Learners may resort to various achievement strategies for different reasons. For instance, learners may use a cooperative strategy which involves expanding their communicative skills, when they seek assistance from their peers, or they may use non-linguistic strategies which include mime and sound imitation and gestures (Bialystok, 1990). In non-cooperative strategies however, problems are solved without involving other people. Learners rely on their L1 other than the TL by trying out L1 expression in the TL, code switching (Færch and Kasper 1983).

In interlanguage strategies, learners may resort to 'generalisation' in which a more general word is used for unknown one, or 'word-coining', where up a new word is invented to cover a gap. They may also use 'restructuring' to phrase the sentence in another way (ibid).

As can be seen, the Færch and Kasper (1983b) classification is somewhat more complicated, and has more subtypes than others. Bialystok (1990) argues that it is not easy to distinguish between the two types of reduction strategies (formal and functional reductions) in Færch and Kasper's taxonomy. She believes that the use of one type of strategy might in practice also be leading to the use of the other. If lexical formal reduction is used by a learner because the target word e.g. 'mushroom' is not known, the learner may also use functional reduction strategy to avoid discussing 'eatable fungi' (ibid: 43). This lack of distinction presents a difficulty for the present study.

However, the sub-types of reduction strategies in Færch and Kasper's typology are to some extent related to Tarone's avoidance strategies. Table 4 shows that Færch and Kasper add a meaning replacement subtype to their reduction strategies. Another six sub-types of compensatory strategies (e.g. code switching, word coinage, paraphrase, and cooperative strategies) are related to Tarone's five types of CSs. For example, subtypes in IL-based strategies generalisation correlates to Tarone's approximation, paraphrase is related to Tarone's circumlocution, and 'restructuring' refer to Tarone's message abandonment (see Bialystok 1990: 44). Inter/intralingual transfer strategies are different here from Bialystok's foreignizing and Tarone's conscious transfer.

2.4.5. Willems's Typology

Willems (1987) also classifies CSs into the two categories of reduction and achievement.

1. Reduction strategies

1.1 Form

a. Phonology

b. Morphology

c. Syntactic

d. Lexical

1.2 Function

a. Message abandonment

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> b. Message replacement c. Topic avoidance
2. Achievement strategies
2.1 Paralinguistic strategies
2.2 Interlingual strategies
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Code switching b. Literal transfer c. Foreignizing
2.3 Intralingual strategies
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Approximation b. Word coinage c. Paraphrase
(i) Description
(ii) 2 Circumlocution
(iii) 3 Exemplification
2.4 Smurfing
2.5 Self repair
2.6 Appeal for assistant
(i) Being explicit
(ii) Being implicit
(iii) Checking questions
(iv) Initiating repair

Table 5. Willems's typology of CSs, 1987

Willems' framework (1987) stresses two ideas, instructing and building strategic competence in learners and the practice of using CSs in the TL classroom settings.

Although researchers have found it difficult to reach agreement on a rigorous definition of CSs and have used different typologies (e.g. Tarone, 1977-1981; Færch and Kasper, 1983b; Willems, 1987; Bialystok, 1990; and Dörnyei, 1995), the typologies show many similarities. In relation to this, Bialystok (1990: 13) observes that “the variety of taxonomies proposed in the literature differ primarily in terminology and overall categorizing principle, rather than in the substance of the specific strategies. If we ignore, then, differences in the structure of the taxonomies by abolishing the various

overall categories, then a core group of specific strategies that appear consistently across the taxonomies clearly emerges’.

As can be seen, two main categories of CSs have emerged from previous researchers namely, *reduction strategies* and *achievement strategies*. Tarone (1981), Færch and Kasper (1983), and Willems (1987) highlight two purposes of strategies: (1) tailoring a learner’s message to his resources through changing, reducing, or abandoning ‘the original content’; and (2) conveying the intended message despite lack of knowledge in the TL ‘by expanding the available language system’ (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997: 195).

Time-gaining strategies are added as another type of CSs by Dörnyei (1995). Types of CSs are presented differently in Bialystok’s (1990) framework. CSs are divided by her into L1-based-strategies, L2-based-strategies, non-language strategies, analysis-based strategies, and control-based strategies.

Some researchers such as Ellis (1984), Bialystok (1990), and Nakatani (2005) maintain that the typology proposed by Tarone is most likely the best, in terms of focusing on the cognitive processes underlying different problem solving strategies, whereas Færch and Kasper and Willems’s typologies are less analytic and more psychologically oriented (Bialystok 199: 47). To this researcher, the similarities are more important than the differences in these typologies. However, rather than relying on a specific scheme of classification, the selection of target strategies in this study will be derived from several main typologies in the field of CSs. The selected CSs for this study will be discussed in more detail in chapter three (3.6).

2.5. Different Perspectives on Communication Strategies

Foster-Cohen (2004) argues that there are two different perspectives in CS research, the interactional and the psycholinguistic. In the first perspective, CSs serve an interactional function. Tarone (1980) introduces this perspective, in which CSs are viewed as tools used for mutual interaction between a speaker and a listener in real situations. He claims that language learners attempt to devise a CS when an overall lack of shared meanings takes place in their communication with native English language speakers.

Two types of CSs were proposed by Canale (1983) to support Tarone's interactional view: '(1) strategies to compensate for disruption in communication problems due to speakers' insufficiencies target language knowledge, and (2) strategies to enhance the effectiveness of communication with interlocutors' (p: 12). Nakatani and Goh (2007) argue that the focus in the interactional perspective is not only on the linguistic realisation of CSs, but also on their function as part of the wider discourse (message enhancement).

In the psycholinguistic perspective, CSs are viewed as evidence of underlying mental processes (cf. Bialystok 1990, Poulishse et al. 1990, and Kellerman 1991). The focus in this perspective is on the speaker, or more specifically, on the problems the speaker experiences in speech reception and planning and execution of speech. Færch and Kasper (1983b: 36) define CSs as "potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal". As a result, these researchers focus on CSs such as 'appealing for assistance', which respond to interaction difficulties, rather than on the mutual involvement of different people in communication exchanges (Cha, 2007).

Bialystok (1990: 17) based her analysis of CSs on a language processing perspective which emphasises the development of two language components: analysis of linguistic knowledge and control of linguistic processing. The former is viewed as 'the process of structuring mental representations of language which are organised at the level of meanings knowledge of the word into explicit representations of structure organised at the level of symbols (form)' (ibid: 118). The latter is 'the ability to control attention to relevant and appropriate information and to integrate these forms in real time' (ibid: 125). The psycholinguistic perspective of CSs is therefore associated with the use of strategies to overcome limitations of lexical knowledge. Within this perspective, the description of CSs is narrowed by many psycholinguistic oriented researchers (Poulishse, Bongaerts, and Kellerman), to only lexical-compensatory strategies (Poulishse, 1990).

Both the interactional and psycholinguistic view of CSs will be used in the current study. In other words, the instruction of CSs in this study will consider surveying both intentional strategies (e.g. confirmation request, clarification check, and

appeal for help) and lexical compensatory strategies (e.g. circumlocution and self-repair).

2.6. Teaching of Communication Strategies

There is controversy over the value of teaching CSs to foreign language learners. Two diverging views are categorized by Yule and Tarone (1997) as ‘the Pros’ and ‘the Cons’. According to Hinkel (2005) a significant number of researchers (the Pros) advocate the teaching of CSs to language learners (Rost & Ross, 1991; Dörnyei, 1995; Macaro, 1997; Yule and Tarone, 1997; Russell and Loschky, 1998; Dewaele, 2005; Nakatani, 2005; Lam, 2005; and Alibakhshi, 2011). Only a few empirical studies exist however, which investigate the benefits of providing L2/FL learners with training in the use of oral communication strategy (cf. Maleki, 2007).

In the research of Nakatani (2005) and Lam (2005), learners who had experienced instructional input developed their strategic competence more than their peers who had not. In their study, Russell and Loschky (1998) found that EFL Japanese learners were inclined to use L1 or non-linguistic strategies, and concluded that these learners could benefit from CS training. In addition, Ellis, (2003) argues that learners could develop their capacity of using language in real life situations by being trained in CSs. Similarly, Yule and Tarone (1997 cited in Faucette, 2001: 10) recommends the teaching of CS to language learners and states that ‘improvement in effective CS use can result from training’.

In contrast, other researchers, ‘the Cons’, (Bialystok, 1990 Kellerman, 1991 and Grenfell and Harris, 1999), are not in favour of teaching CSs to language learners. These researchers argue that learners usually develop a strategic competence in their first language, which they can then transfer to second/foreign language use. Kellerman (1991 cited in Gallagher Brett 2001) argues that since L2/FL learners can transfer their L1 knowledge to the target language TL, there is no need to teach them CSs because transfer from L1 to TL is automatic. To date, the review of the literature reveals that researchers who oppose the teaching of CSs do not base their claims on empirical studies. As can be seen however, there is insufficient evidence either for or against CS teaching. It appears that considerable debate has been grounded in subjective opinions,

rather than empirical studies. This lacuna gave the researcher the idea of analysing empirical data both quantitatively and qualitatively to answer the following research question: Can CSs be effectively taught to learners, i.e. does explicit training in a specific CS result in its increased usage by learners? This research question is suggested by review of Dörnyei's 1995 study.

2.7. Existing methods of teaching CSs

Many researchers propose the inclusion of CS instruction in L2/FL teaching (Alibakhshi 2011). Three types of activities of CS training are suggested by Færch and Kasper (1986). The first are communication games with visual support which allow full visual contact between the participants and full possibilities for immediate feedback. The second are games with no visual support 'simulating a telephone conversation'. The third type is a monologue, a 'two-minute talk with limited immediate feedback' (ibid: 186). They recommend employing these activities in a cycle sequence, starting with concrete, physical entities, then abstract notions and finally culture-specific notions. Færch and Kasper (1986) claim that these activities help learners to gauge which strategies are most appropriate to improve their communication and increase their TL knowledge.

Willems (1987) argues that paraphrase strategy and approximation strategy are the most commonly used strategies and suggests instructing a number of CS activities for developing their usage. In his study, crossword puzzles and describing a strange object are presented as activities for instructing CSs activities. He claims that learners should be encouraged to acquire communication strategy skills rather than to search for 'perfection'. He suggests also that learners should be allowed to act freely when they attempt to use the TL. This helps observers to understand learners' reactions when they encounter linguistic problems. He observes that making errors is inevitable, but learners can reasonably compensate for these by 'skilfulness in the use of CS in interaction' (361).

Other practical ideas for strategy training are suggested by Dörnyei and Thurrell's (1991: 19-20) study. They propose three activities, 'nonsense dialogues', 'one-word dialogues', and 'going off the point'. The first activity, which focuses on the use of

fillers, is recommended at an early stage. In this activity, students are asked to work in pairs and compose nonsense dialogues which entail fillers e.g. to use names of cities 'You know, I thought maybe London' (ibid: 19). In the second activity 'one-word dialogues', students are asked to work again in pairs and create a dialogue where every utterance must represent one word and does not affect the logical flow of the whole dialogue e.g. '**A** Tomorrow? **B** Trip! **A** Where? **B** Chicago. . .' (ibid: 20). In the third activity, 'going off the point', students are instructed not to answer a particular question in a way to remain in control of the dialogue e.g. "How old are you? "Well, that's an interesting question" (ibid: 20-21). Dörnyei and Thurrell believe that these activities help learners to build a sense of security in language, as a result of their manoeuvres whenever they encounter a problem. The students not only develop their confidence, but also improve their performance and enjoy practising such activities. This raises the question: can such an increase in security or confidence be investigated? This is another question of my study. More specifically: Does the usage of CSs have an impact on learners' confidence in speaking English? This is suggested by review of Cohen's et al. 1996 study.

Interview-type activities to teach CS are rejected by Brooks (1992 cited in Maleki, 2010). He instead recommends using jigsaw tasks activities, especially for circumlocution and appeals for assistance. He claims that teaching such activities is beneficial because it increases the amount of negotiation required as the two partners try to talk and understand each other.

Dörnyei (1995) recommends a 'direct approach' to teaching CSs which involves procedures such as 'raising learner awareness', 'increasing willingness to take risks and use CSs', and 'providing opportunities for practice in strategy use' (ibid, 63-64). Awareness-raising makes the learners realise the importance of the strategies that they already use in their L1, and helps them to use these strategies appropriately in the L2. To promote a willingness to take risks and use CSs, he advocates encouraging learners' to manipulate their available language repertoire, without being concerned about making mistakes. Repeated opportunities for practice are necessary because 'CSs can only fulfil their function as immediate first aid devices if their use has reached an automatic stage' (ibid: 64). According to him, effective strategy use cannot occur

without explicit, focussed instruction, and teaching CSs is the way to develop their usage (ibid).

From the starting point of a decision to teach CSs, some of the above techniques were used in the current study to explicitly instruct students in the usage of specific CSs (table 9) over a twelve weeks' period. The teacher cooperating in this study encouraged students to work in pairs and groups. In lessons, he explicitly identified CSs, and provided the rationale for learning them. Examples of the ten selected CSs were given as well as the opportunity to use them and discuss their use at the end of each lesson. Full detailed lesson plans are presented in section 3.8.

2.8. Empirical Research on Communication Strategies

Within the field of L2/FL literature, the number of empirical studies assessing the value of strategy training is small. In one study, Dörnyei (1995) examined the teachability of CSs. He supported an explicit approach to teaching CS. In a six week study in a Hungarian high school, using three types of reduction and achievement strategies, namely, 'avoidance and replacement', 'circumlocution', and 'fillers and hesitation devices', he found that learners in the strategy training group made a significant improvement in the quality and quantity of strategy used as well as their overall speech performance. In addition, learners' attitudes towards the training were found to be highly positive. The results showed that strategy training could contribute to L2 development.

This study provided evidence that CSs may be teachable and that the pattern of learners' strategy use may be affected by training. Although Dörnyei's study is relevant to the present study, it was limited to only the three strategies mentioned above. The current study, in contrast, explores a fuller range of possible CSs (e.g. reduction strategies, achievement, modified-interaction, and social-interaction strategies). See table 9 in 3.6.

Bejarano et al. (1997) assert that training language learners to use interaction strategies can facilitate the negotiation process and enhance the comprehensible inputs and outputs which are essential for acquiring the TL. 34 students in a comprehensive high school participated in their study, divided into a treatment group (15 students) and

a control group (19 students). Both groups were involved in similar group discussion activities, but the treatment group also undertook special training in modified-interaction strategies, including ‘checking for comprehension’, ‘clarification’, ‘appealing for assistance’, ‘giving assistance’, ‘repairing’, and social-interaction strategies, including ‘elaborating’, ‘responding’, ‘seeking information / opinion’, and ‘paraphrasing strategies’.

Their results showed that social-interaction strategies were used more often than modified-interaction strategies by both groups, both before and after the experiment. The treatment groups however used more interaction strategies than the control group. Because of the small number who participated in the experiment, the researchers could not conclude that training had a statistically significant effect on the overall participation. The present study involved more students (40), in order to increase reliability, and attempted to explore the impact of training language learners over a prolonged period of time (See 4.4.6).

Salomone and Marsal (1997) investigated the impact of CSs instruction on 24 French undergraduate learners, divided into treatment and control classes. All the learners were pre- and post- tested to elicit explanations of concrete nouns, abstract nouns, and shapes. Investigators in this study instructed the treatment class in the use of ‘circumlocution’ and other strategies, but taught the control class as a normal English language class without CS training. The findings showed no significant differences between the two classes in the post-test. However, the researchers used written, rather than oral, tests. The validity of using a written test to measure the impact of CSs for oral communication is obviously questionable. The current study used more appropriate evaluation methods, and investigated not only the impact of teaching CSs on English language learners, but also the correlation between the use of these strategies and variables such as gender, culture and learners’ personality, as well as these variables’ effects on learners’ choices (See 4.4.4).

Cohen et al. (1998) also suggested that training learners in the use of oral CSs is feasible. Specific strategies for oral communication such as ‘preparation’, ‘self-monitoring’, and ‘self-evaluation’ were taught to learners of foreign languages at the University of Minnesota. The researchers analysed the results of pre- and post-training

speaking tests and the usage records that learners filled out to document their strategy usage. The findings showed that the test scores of the learners who had received strategy training increased somewhat in the post-tests. The control group scored increases in the task performance rating, 'self-description' and 'city-description' tasks. Unexpectedly, researchers found that high-proficiency learners did not always outperform lower-proficiency learners. However, the overall result of Cohen et al.'s study indicates that the learners' communicative ability did not improve with teaching CSs. The researchers thought this might be due to problems with the instructional model which did not effectively introduce interaction skills such as the negotiation of meaning between interlocutors, which means that this research can be considered inconclusive about the effectiveness of CS training.

More recently, Rossiter (2003) carried out a study with adult immigrants in Canada on the effect of CS training on strategy use and task performance. He used an experimental group which received 12 hours of direct CS training, and a comparison control group. The participants were given oral tasks (picture story narratives and object descriptions) in Week 1, Week 5, and Week 10. Although the object description tasks were found to be more effective than narratives in eliciting CSs, the researcher concluded that strategy training appeared to have little impact on learners' performance. However, he used a much smaller range of evaluation methods than the present study does.

Nakatani (2005), on the other hand, explored the impact of oral communication strategy on the discourse of Japanese EFL learners, and arrived at rather different findings from Rossiter (2003). Nakatani's study focused more specifically on the effect of awareness-raising training on CS use. The researcher divided his sample (62 female learners) into a treatment group and a control group. The control group received only the regular communication course, whereas the treatment group received meta-cognitive strategy training, and were also taught 'reduction' and 'achievement strategies' (CSs) in a 12 week period. The former included 'message abandonment' and 'interlanguage-based reduction strategies'. The latter consisted of 'help-seeking', 'modified-interaction', 'time-gaining', and 'self-solving strategies'. In contrast to the present study, modified-interaction strategies were viewed as achievement strategies in Nakatani's study.

The study found that learners' use of CSs improved, and that this was probably due to the strategy training programme. Its findings also showed that participants in the treatment group improved their oral proficiency test scores in comparison to those in the control group. Jidong (2011) argues that the success of the treatment group was attributed to the general increase in participants' awareness of oral CSs and their use. Thus, Nakatani's (2005) study attempted to establish a link between the use of metacognitive strategies and learners' awareness-raising by CS instruction.

All the above recent relevant studies (Dörnyei, 1995; Bejarano et.al. 1997; Salomone and Marsal, 1997; Cohen et al. 1998; Rossiter, 2003; and Nakatani, 2010) suggest lacunae and areas of inadequate research into the impact of strategy training on strategy use. Salomone and Marsal (1997) for instance, conducted written rather than oral tests. Dörnyei's 1995 study was limited to only three CSs i.e. 'avoidance and replacement', 'circumlocution', and 'fillers and hesitation devices'.

The focus of the current study, in contrast, is on exploring a fuller range of possible CSs (e.g. avoidance, achievement, modified-interaction, and social-interaction strategies). Some of the lacunae and shortcomings in existing research can be attributed in part to the methodological approaches used in some studies. Researchers in the above mentioned studies did not adopt a multi-method approach to examine the effects of strategy instruction on learners' strategy use. This omission is one reason why a multi-method evaluation approach is used in the present study. As Cohen (1998), Chamot (2004) and Wigglesworth (2005) point out, a synthesis of approaches investigating the impact of strategy training can offer a more comprehensive picture of learners' strategy use. The continuing uncertainty about the effect of strategy training on strategy use and task performance provides a part of the rationale for the current study. Its emphasis is on teaching CSs because this area has received such limited attention in research literature in Libya. It also aims to discover whether CSs have a positive or negative impact on learners' speaking skills and on their attitude in general. This is suggested by review of Dörnyei 1995 and Huang's 2010 studies. The intention of this study, then, is to fill the gaps in knowledge left by the previous studies in making an original contribution to this particular field of study.

2.9. Variables Affecting the Choice of CSs

Target language proficiency, gender and communication contexts are among the variables influencing choice of CSs which have been presented thus far. Discussing the correlation between these variables and a choice of CSs can shed light for teachers on the particularities of Libyan language learners in the contexts of certain communication tasks.

2.9.1. English Proficiency and the Use of CSs

Proficiency level is probably one of the factors which affect the choice of CSs, but Cohen and Macaro (2007) argue that it is hard to predict the relationship between the use of CSs and TL proficiency level for a number of reasons. Previous researchers such as Ellis (1984), Labarca and Khanji (1986), Poulisse and Schils (1989), Cohen et al. (1998), and Nakatani (2006) differ markedly over the levels of learners who might benefit more from using CSs. There are also differences in the way these researchers evaluate levels of speaking proficiency. The use of CSs is dependent on context, and different researchers may have used different speaking contexts to arrive at their measures of proficiency. For instance, Labarca and Khanji (1986), and Khanji (1997) examined CS use in different contexts. Cohen and Macaro (2007: 215) suggest that differing opinions might also be attributed to the different ways that some researchers evaluated the usage of CSs.

Tarone (1977) proposed that the level of L2 learners' proficiency might be related to their CS choices. She compared speakers' performances in story-telling tasks in their L1 and L2. The researcher found that the proficiency levels of the speakers influenced their choices of CSs; low level students preferred avoidance strategies, while high level learners used more L2-based strategies. Bialystok (1983), who supported Tarone's findings, focused on the use of specific lexical items in a picture story reconstruction task. She asked two groups of Anglo-Canadian learners of French to describe a picture to a French native speaker, so that they could reconstruct it on a nonsense board. Her study showed that the choice of certain strategies entails a minimum level of proficiency (p: 115).

This observation explains why advanced speakers used more L2-based strategies and fewer L1-based strategies than less advanced speakers. L2-based strategies are those related to target language rules or knowledge, such as approximation and circumlocution, whereas L1-based strategies are primarily related to the mother tongue e.g. language transfer and code switching.

Phan and Ting (2008) also examined the influence of English proficiency level on the use of CSs. In their study, the interactional data of twenty Malaysian undergraduate English learners was analysed to identify choices of CSs. The results revealed that the overall number of strategies used was not influenced by proficiency. However, Phan and Ting found that less proficient learners used L1-based strategies, particularly language switch to compensate for communication difficulties, whereas high proficient learners used ‘tonicity’ to enhance the negotiation of meaning.

These researchers found that the use of CSs enhanced the negotiation of meaning between learners. In this process, the proficient group supported the less-proficient group to construct meanings in the TL “...learners, with better knowledge and control of the language, to scaffold the less proficient learners in constructing meanings in the target language” (ibid: 38). Although pair discussion is a useful evaluation method, it was the only method used in Phan and Ting’s (2008) study. The researchers should have used additional methods (e.g. questionnaires, and interviews) in order to get more accurate and conclusive results.

In a similar vein, Nakatani (2006) investigated the relationship between proficiency level and the use of CSs for negotiation of meaning. The participants in this study were 400 Japanese students. The researcher used a self-report method to evaluate female EFL learners’ use of CSs in interaction tasks. Eight variables of strategies used to cope with oral production problems and another seven for coping with receptive problems were analyzed (see table 6 below). An Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI) was used to count frequency of use.

The researcher concluded that the higher proficiency group used negotiation-for-meaning, social-affective, and fluency-maintaining strategies more than the lower proficiency groups. In fact, the high proficiency students successfully used oral CSs to maintain the interaction and the flow of conversation (Jidong, 2011). It was also found

that learners used strategies such as clarification requests when they encountered listening problems.

However, in his attempt to examine the differences between high proficiency and low proficiency groups, Nakatani (2006) relied heavily on the usage frequency of CSs. It should be noted that frequency is not always a consistent indicator of successful strategy use, as other variables (e.g. gender and learning context) can affect frequency. Furthermore, as mentioned by Phan and Ting, although an inventory approach is appropriate in evaluating strategy use, it is necessary to use other assessment methods too. The findings from OCSI should be examined along with other kinds of data.

speaking	Listening
Social affective strategies	Negotiation for meaning while listening strategies
Fluency-oriented strategies	Fluency-maintaining strategies
Negotiation for meaning while speaking strategies	Scanning strategies, getting the gist strategies
Accuracy-oriented strategies	Getting the gist
Message reduction and alteration strategies	Nonverbal strategies while listening
Nonverbal strategies while speaking	Less active listener strategies
Message abandonment strategies	Word-oriented strategies.
Attempt to think in English strategies	

Table 6: Nakatani's (2006, pp: 155-56) speaking and listening strategies

In contrast to the findings of the above studies, some researchers such as Bialystok (1983), and Paribakht (1985), Labarca and Khanji (1986), Chen (1990), and Khanji (1996, reported an inverse relationship between proficiency level and CSs use.

Poulisse and Schils (1989) found that the proficiency level had no significant impact on the use of compensatory strategies, although less proficient learners generally used more compensatory strategies than high proficiency learners. This is possibly because proficient learners already have enough linguistic and sociolinguistic knowledge of the TL whereas less proficient learners' linguistic knowledge compels them to rely more on CS (e.g. strategies based on L1 and compensation strategies). In

their analysis, Poulisse and Schils, used impressive quantitative data, but neglected qualitative analysis.

Chen (1990 cited in Maleki 2007) divided her students into two groups according to language proficiency and asked them to perform a concept-identification task in an interview with native speaker (NS). Overall, Chens less proficient learners used the most CSs, and more of these were knowledge based and repetition strategies, compared with the more proficient learners, who used more linguistically based strategies. She observed that proficiency has a significant effect on the use of CS, and concluded that ‘learners’ strategic, and accordingly, communicative competence might be increased through recommended CS training’ (Maleki, 2007: 585).

In summary, language proficiency level is believed to be an influential factor in the choice of CSs (Nakatani, 2006). However, there are contradictory conclusions in existing studies on the relationship between language proficiency level and the use of CSs. Some of the studies presented above suggest that high proficiency learners are more capable of selecting appropriate and effective strategies CSs for interaction. In contrast, less proficient learners resort to abandonment strategies and rely heavily on knowledge-based strategies including CS. This researcher agrees with Cohen *et al.* (1998) that the effectiveness of L2/FL oral strategy instruction might be greatly influenced by learners’ proficiency level.

2.9. 2. Gender differences and CSs use

Chen et al. (2005) explored the gender differences in self-repair and repair markers. Data was obtained from a spoken English corpus produced by 42 non English major learners in China (21 of each gender). The researchers found that males relied on a more restricted range of repairs than females. They also used repairs less frequently. Researchers in this study attributed this to differences in the learners’ English proficiency levels and their willingness to try CSs. The reason for this difference might have been the females’ greater motivation towards language learning.

Lai (2010) employed oral and written concept-identification tasks to investigate the effect of gender on the use of CSs. In a study of 36 Chinese male and female EFL students, no significant gender differences were found in the effective use of CSs. However, female learners were more efficient than male learners in their execution of CSs.

Kaivanpanah et al. (2012) investigated gender influence in the use of CSs, along with other variables, such as proficiency level, task types and frequency. 227 learners (89 males and 138 females of differing levels) studying English for at least one year at several Language Institutes in Tehran participated in the study. Researchers adopted only a five-point Likert scale questionnaire as an evaluation tool, because of the speed and objectivity of this method. Three types of tasks, namely picture description, telling a story, and telling a joke were used. The findings showed that no significant gender correlation existed in the use of CSs apart from circumlocution, asking for clarification, omission, comprehension check, and fillers, (See Appendix M 'A' for more details). They explained these differences with the argument that females are more interested in social activity than males (ibid: 89).

The above studies, as well as previous ones such as Kaivanpanah et al. (2012), suggest that gender might affect the usage of CSs in frequency and type. Since the influence of gender is a potentially contentious subject, the researcher in the current study decided to investigate this phenomenon before making or accepting generalisations. Learners of both sexes participated in the current study, to enable it to possibly contribute to this area of research.

2.9. 3. Relation of communication, cultural, and learning contexts with CSs

Early researchers such as Ellis (1983) argued that the students' use of CSs is, to some extent, affected by the context. Bialystok and Frohlich (1980) conducted a study on the conditions affecting CS choice, such as the learners' inferencing ability, their proficiency level, and the communicative context. The researchers used three groups of French learners consisting of one group of 14 adults and two groups of 17 years olds, one of them studying advanced French and the other studying French as a main subject. Participants were given a cloze test, a sentence translation task in Danish, a picture

reconstruction and a description task. The results suggested that CS choice was highly influenced by the communicative context.

The effect of learning context on CSs was also explored in Lafford's (2004) study using two groups of L2 Spanish learners, with 20 students studying at home and 26 studying abroad. The 46 learners were pre and post-tested to determine their choices of CSs, and each also completed a questionnaire. The results showed a significant effect of context. Learners studying abroad employed fewer CSs than at home learners.

Shih and Yang (2008) examined how learners perceive their experience in virtual spaces and measured CSs usage in them. Using IT, quantitative data was collected from learners' interactions in virtual contexts and qualitative data from learners' questionnaires. The results showed that learner' motivation, sense of belonging, and their use of CSs increased significantly when presented with simulations of authentic communicative contexts.

2.9.4. First language and CSs

Ellis (1985) claims that learners' L1 strongly influences the acquisition of L2/TL. Atkinson, in addition, (1987) argues that L1 has an essential role to play in communicating meaning and content. He suggests a correlation of some CSs i.e. 'time saving strategies', 'circumlocution strategies', 'translation' and 'checking for sense', with a successful communicative process. In contrast, Harbord (1992) argues that it is more useful for learners to use alternative TL strategies such as paraphrasing (such as word coinage e.g. air ball for balloon) rather than relying on their L1.

Fernández Dobao (2001) examined the relationship between CSs use and factors such as proficiency level, native language, and task demand. The researcher selected 15 English foreign language learners of different linguistic backgrounds. Seven spoke Galician as a mother tongue whereas the rest spoke Spanish. He asked the participants to accomplish three communication tasks: a picture story narration, a photograph description, and a ten minute conversation. The results showed that learners' L1 had no influence on the choice of CSs; both the Galician and Spanish native learners used the same types of CS i.e. avoidance, achievement and L1-based strategies. Nevertheless, a significant difference was evident in the frequency of CSs use, for which researcher was

unable to provide a clear explanation. He suggested that further research be conducted to explain this issue.

Further evidence was provided by Rabab'ah and Bulut (2007) on the influence of a learners' native language on strategy use, in a study of 24 male learners. The participants were high school learners studying Arabic as second language from eight countries, with different languages (Albanian, Russian, Tajik, Urdu, Wolof, French Somali and Malay). The data was collected from oral interviews and role-play tasks. In the analysis, the researchers first translated the exercise transcripts into Arabic and then classified the CSs within them into three categories: reduction, achievement and interactive. The results showed that all participants resorted to using compensation strategies because they lacked linguistic knowledge of the TL. However, the frequency of usage varied according to the learner's native language and task. In the interview task for instance, compensation strategies were used most frequently by Wolof native learners, and least frequently by French and Somali. For the role-play task, CSs were used most frequently used by the Russians, Somalis and Tajiks. This difference was attributed to the effect of different mother tongue interferences and educational backgrounds. Rabab'ah and Bulut (ibid: 102) provided no explanation of this observable fact, but called for further investigation into the nature of the various languages and their relation to Arabic.

In another study, Umar (2006) compared the pragmatic competence of advanced Sudanese learners and native English speakers when given the task of making a complaint. The subjects were 46 Sudanese learners studying English in Sudan and 14 British native speakers. All the participants filled out a discourse completion test asking them to respond to three different situations: complaining about a room; dealing with a badly behaved person; and applying for a position. Comparison of the results showed that the groups performed differently, with Sudanese learners using fewer CSs than native speakers. Sudanese learners also resorted to inappropriate strategies, which was seen as related to their socio-cultural background. The researcher concluded that the choice of certain strategies may be less influenced by the target language norms, than by the learners' own socio-cultural milieu.

The use of CSs is considered to be a multi-factor phenomenon, and apparently L1 is one of them (Jidong 2011). In comparison with other variables however, the influence of learners' L1 on the use of CSs is still controversial, and relatively unexplored. Therefore, the current study will attempt to shed some light on this factor and contribute to knowledge in this domain.

2.9. 5. Task types and CSs

Poulisse and Schils (1989) argue that task-related factors influence the choice of CSs. They assert that learners decide how to convey information by assessing demands, contexts, and interlocutors. In their study, three groups of Dutch learners of English were given three tasks, (picture description, story retelling, and an oral interview with a native speaker). They found that the type of CS used was influenced by the type of task. They also found that other task-related factors, such as the presence or the absence of an interlocutor significantly affected the choice of CS and they suggested further research in the area.

Corrales and Call (1989) also investigated CSs used by two Spanish-speaking groups (intermediate and advanced English learners). Learners were asked to do two tasks: answering structured questions and a simulated communication situation. The data was elicited twice within an interval of five weeks (corresponding to pre and post periods). It was found that both groups of learners used considerably more CSs in the unstructured task and there was a significant relation between proficiency level and choice of strategies. In addition, the results showed that the advanced group employed a greater mean percentage of task-influenced strategies than the intermediate group in the pre-period process, whereas the intermediate group employed a greater mean percentage of these strategies in the post period. Describing this difference, Corrales and Call (1989: 227) explained that 'students of a language may go through a period of maximum exploitation of task-influenced strategies, which peaks and then drops off as they become more proficient in the language'.

Fernández Dobao (2001), in a previously mentioned study, also explored the influence of task on CS use. Using three tasks, (a picture story, a photograph description and a conversation), he found that task-related factors, such as the type of discourse, its

cognitive complexity, and presence of an interlocutor had a significant effect on the use of CSs. For instance, achievement strategies were used more often in conversation and photograph description than in the picture story task. (These strategies include ‘approximation’ ‘word coinage’ and ‘circumlocution’ ‘mime’ and ‘appeal for assistance’ whereas avoidance strategies involves topic avoidance’, message abandonment’, message reduction’, and semantic avoidance’, see Appendix M ‘C’ for more details).

Another investigation of task influence was made by Rabab’ah and Bulut (2007), using second year learners studying Arabic as a second language. The CSs investigated were reduction, ‘message abandonment’, the achievement strategies, ‘approximation’, ‘paraphrase’, ‘retrieval’, ‘coinage’, ‘restructuring’, ‘repetition’, and the interactive strategies, ‘clarification request’, and ‘asking for repetition’. 24 male and female learners of eight different countries were involved. It was found that learners used more CSs (416 cases) in the interview task than in role-play task (63cases). Two reasons for this were suggested. The first was the fact that the interview task was more challenging, and required a wider and more difficult range of vocabulary items than the role-play task. The second reason might be attributed to the fact that the interview demanded a more specific response that may have been beyond the student’s capacity to express using their own language, even with the use of a CS.

As can be seen from the studies above, task-related factors, such as purpose, formality, and cognitive demand, as well as the interlocutors’ status all affect different learners differently, and have particular effects on CS use. However, existing studies, have not sufficiently explored the complexities of the relationships between the use of CSs and tasks. Further research can focus on the frequency and types of CSs, the comparisons of task types, and even the reliability and validity of task-based questionnaires.

2.9. 6. Personality and CSs

A number of studies have suggested that there is an association between learners’ personality and achievement in L2/FL learning. Differences in learners’ methods of telling a story were observed by Tarone (1977), who suggested that there

might be a close relationship between CSs use and the learners' personality characteristics.

Subsequently, Wang (2005) investigated the use of CSs and the effect of learners' L2 personality traits and formal proficiency. The researcher selected 40 second-year non-English majors with regard to their personality traits and L2 formal proficiency. The researcher used questionnaire surveys and interviews for collecting the data. The results suggested that both personality traits and L2 formal proficiency influenced the choice of CSs. Also, effective L2-based strategies were employed more by the higher proficiency learners, especially extroverts, whereas L1-based strategies and reduction strategies were used more by introverts with a lower-proficiency level.

The effect of learners' personalities and proficiency levels were also examined by Lin and Li (2009). They found that cooperative strategies and imitation strategies were used more by extroverted learners, while reduction strategies were employed more by introverted ones. These researchers explained the difference by suggesting that while extroverts exchanged their views eagerly and willingly, introverts were excessively reluctant to ask for assistance. Rather than using expressions which they were not sure about, introverts resorted to reduction strategies and avoidance strategies.

2.9.7. Motivation/attitude

Dörnyei (2005) considers motivation as the driving force which not only initiates learning, but also sustains language learning until the intended goals are fulfilled. He observes that researchers in L2 acquisition such as Lalonde and Gardner (1984), Gardner (1985) and Dörnyei (2003) have paid great attention to motivation. The work of Lalonde and Gardner (1984) emphasised the role of culture, motivation, and attitude on L2 acquisition. Since then, a new period of cognitive studies, motivational studies and self-determination and attribution theories has emerged. These theories have used the concepts of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Dörnyei, 2005). The former refers to a willingness to engage because an activity is found to be enjoyable and fulfilling, whereas the latter refers to the desire to do an activity because of an external reason or incentive (Ryan et al. 1999).

To date, no study has been conducted on the relationship between motivation/attitude and CSs use. This deficiency suggests this area for further research, which questions 2 and 3 will examine. However, more general research has been conducted on the relation between motivation and learning achievement. For example, motivation was measured by Gardner (1985) to find out if there was a significant relationship between motivation and achievement. It was also examined by McIntyre and Noels (1996) in relation to second language learning strategies (SLLs). Brown (2000) investigated motivation in terms of the intrinsic and extrinsic motives of the learners. Later, Lopez-Wagner (2008) studied a further possible connection between personality and motivation.

Noursi (2013) conducted a study to investigate how the teacher's mother tongue affects learners' attitudes. 196 Arab students, including Libyans studying at the Applied Technology High School in UAE participated in this study, taught by native and non-native English teachers. The results revealed that all the students had a strong desire to learn English and were not influenced by the mother tongue of the teachers. The researcher claimed that student attitudes were affected by the teaching methods used and the encouragement received, rather than the teacher's mother tongue. However, before conducting the study, the researcher observed a negative attitude in the school towards learning English. This might be related to the social distance created by the excessively high status of the teacher, common in Arabic culture in general and among Libyans in particular (Abubaker, 2013). This *cultural factor* may have influenced the outcomes of this study. This context also suggested further examination of the relation of motivation and attitude to the use of CSs as an objective of this study.

2.10. Research Questions

The literature review suggested three major research questions to investigate the impact of teaching CSs to English language learners in Libya. These questions as follows:

1. Can CS be effectively taught to learners, i.e. Does explicit training in a specific CS result in increasing usage by learners? 'This question was primarily generated and established by issues and factors analysed previously in section 2.6'.

2. Does the usage of CSs have an impact on learners' confidence in speaking English?
3. What are the learners' attitudes to being taught CSs?

‘These questions 2 & 3 were primarily generated and established by issues and factors analysed previously in section 2.7, 2.8 and 2.9.7 respectively’.

2.11. Summary

An overview of the history and trends of CSs in the field of 2L/FL language learning has been presented in this chapter. Since the introduction of CSs by Selinker (1972), researchers have developed theories and paid attention to research in these strategies. No consensus on the definition of CSs has been reached. Researchers have proposed two perspectives to conceptualise CSs, the interactional and the psycholinguistic. The former views CSs as a mutual attempt by interlocutors to maintain the conversation in a communicative situation. The latter, considers CSs as a cognitive process by speaking when facing communication problems.

This chapter has highlighted the arguments against and in favour of teaching CSs, and the existing methods of teaching CSs. In addition, previous empirical studies which revealed that there was disagreement on which CSs should be taught have been examined. However, these studies have supported the teaching of CSs to enhance learners' general productive outputs.

Recently researchers have shown increasing interest in the relationship between the use of CSs and factors such as personality, gender, tasks, proficiency level and motivation. They suggest that the acquisition process might be aided and language teaching practice improved through better understanding of these influences (cf. Jidong, 2011). However, most of these earlier studies used only statistical analysis of data. The present study, in contrast, aims to obtain a more comprehensive view, through the use of mixed-method data analysis.

This literature review has suggested many possible areas of research including the use of CSs in solving students communication problems, implementing CSs in curriculum reform, how students adjust their use of CSs, the possible use of CSs in

improving English writing, the relation between task-related factors and CSs, the use of CSs in text-based and video based communication, cognitive style and the use of CSs, the effect of strategic instruction on students' accuracy, fluency and complexity, teaching CSs to enhance comprehension input, and finally, the psycholinguistic and interactional effects of CSs.,

This study will focus on the impact of teaching CSs on learners' strategic awareness and confidence, the correlation between CSs instruction and their usage by learners, and the longitudinal impact of teaching CSs.

Chapter three: Methodology

3.1. Introduction

This section gives an overview and justification of the research paradigm which informs the research methods. The aim of the present study is explained, along with the specific research questions that the study addresses. Some key methodological issues are then discussed, including sampling, research design and the strategies targeted for teaching. The methods of questionnaires, observation, semi-structured interview, speaking tasks are then detailed. Finally, the section examines the CS training programme itself, the analysis of data, and ethical considerations.

3.2. The Research Paradigm

The scientific process which seeks to add to knowledge by finding answers to questions through systematic investigation is called a research paradigm (Cohen et al. 2011). It is considered by Cohen et al. as a successful approach for discovering a truth, particularly if the ‘natural sciences’ are apprehended. According to Smith and Heshusius 1986 cited in Sale et al. 2002, early research in social science revolved around non-numerical methods such as observation, historical studies and interviews. In the process of scientific theory development, social scientists such as Comte and Dilthey developed the positivist and interpretivist approaches (ibid).

The ontological positivist believes in the existence of the external and objective reality of the social world and encourages researchers to use a suitable scientific methodology to discover it (Tuli, 2010). In the case of epistemological positivism, knowledge is viewed as value-free. What a researcher needs to do is to detach him/herself from the participant and remain neutral, so that a distinction between reason and feeling is reached. Thus, positivist researchers use Quantitative approach methodologies to uncover single objective realities (Cohen et al. 2011). By contrast, ontologically, the idea of existent reality ‘out there’ is not accepted in the interpretive paradigm (Tuli, 2010: 101). Also, knowledge is regarded not as value-free, but personal in the epistemological interpretive paradigm. The generation of knowledge is centred on social construct and subjective interaction in the interpretive approach. However, rather

than predicting causes and effects, researchers tend to interpret and understand the participant's behaviour in this approach (ibid).

Weber, who was influenced by Dilthey, claimed that the two paradigms have shortcomings: whereas 'positivism could not attach meaning of reality, [interpretism] did not entertain the possibility that social reality might be the existing reality' (Onwuegbuzie, 2000: 6). Cohen et al. (2011) also observes that the positivist approach is criticised for its macro-sociological influence while the interpretive approach is criticised for its closely micro-sociological standpoint. Smith (1983) cited in Creswell 2003, maintains that the two approaches differ in their interest in the subject matter. Consequently, the positivist and interpretivist perspectives were merged in one paradigm, post-positivism, which based its knowledge on the development of numeric measures of observations and the study of individual's behaviour. This careful measurement and observation combined with the study of the behaviour of individuals became paramount for the post-positivist and encouraged some pragmatists such as Hanson and Popper to advocate the use mixed methodologies (See Onwuegbuzie, 2002 and Creswell, 2009).

Furthermore, Creswell (2009) argued that both pragmatism and mixed methods are not mainly committed to one philosophy or reality, but draw liberally from enquiries of both the quantitative and qualitative hypotheses in which they are employed. Similarly to mixed methodists, pragmatists look at the world from different angles and utilize many approaches for collecting and analysing the data. However, a deductive logic which reflects in *formal writing styles using impersonal voice* (Onwuegbuzie 2002: 519) led to more radical paradigms such as constructivism and interpretism, in both of which naturalism was emphasised.

This movement continued, and mixed-methods prevailed in 1980s. In the 1990s, mixed method studies which combined both quantitative and qualitative approaches appeared progressively (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). The subsisting causal relationship between quantitative and qualitative approaches was acknowledged by pragmatists, but it was difficult for them to identify many of these relations. The external reality was also accepted by pragmatists and it was considered that values influence the interpretation of the results (Onwuegbuzie, 2000).

Three schools of thought, the purists, situationalists and pragmatists, have dealt with the relationship between quantitative and qualitative approaches recently. In the purist school, mono-method studies are advocated, avoiding the mixture of paradigm and methods. The situationalists prefer the selection of research methods which are suitable for specific situations, whereas the pragmatists choose the integration of multiple methods in a single study (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998 and Creswell, 2003). Thus, there is an inclination for combining both quantitative and qualitative analysis in social science as a way of providing balance in this field (Jonathan, 2010).

A pragmatist paradigm is adopted by the researcher in the current study, which combines both the quantitative and qualitative methods. Combining these approaches allows the researcher to ‘triangulate’ the information obtained from quantitative to qualitative methods. This pragmatic approach allows the researcher to use multiple methods, different views, different data and analysis within a mixed-method study (Creswell, 2009).

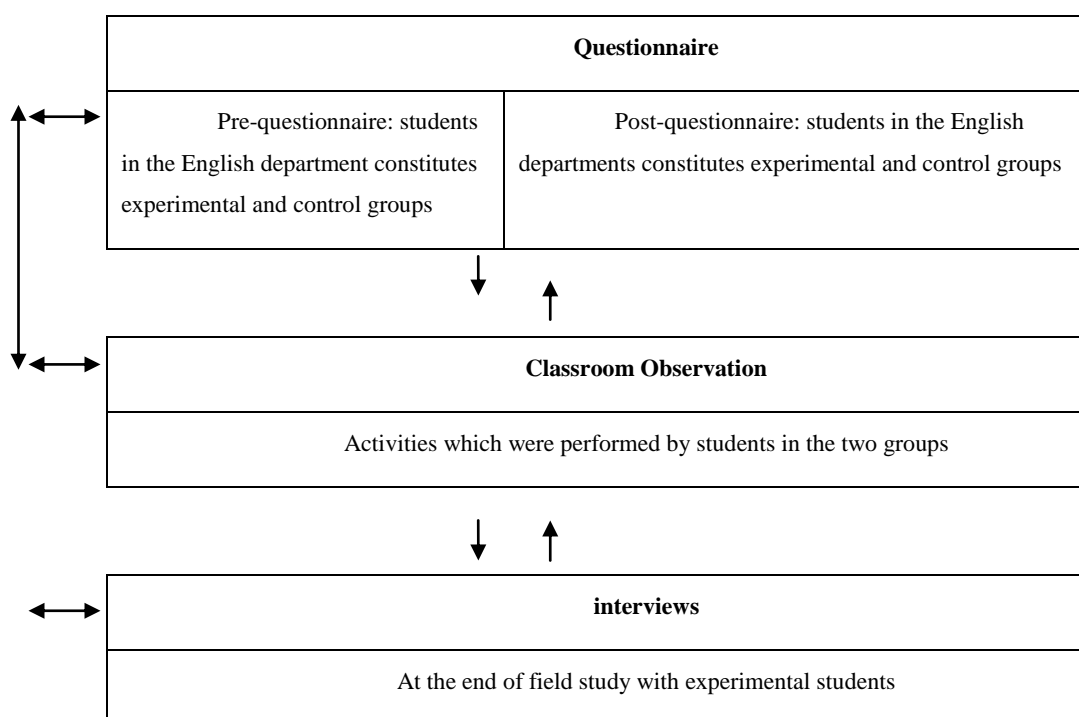


Figure 1: method and data triangulation in this study

Furthermore, Creswell (2009) argues that the pragmatist focuses on the research problem and the approaches available for understanding the problem, unlike the use of a single approach such as the positivist or interpretive. As a result, different methods as well as different forms of data collection and analysis are used in the pragmatist paradigm. Dörnyei (2007) and Cohen et al. (2011) recommend employing various forms of triangulation such as theory triangulation, data triangulation, investigative triangulation and methodological triangulation to increase the quality control and representativeness of a study. Two of these forms, ‘methodological triangulation’ and ‘data triangulation’ are appropriate for, and were used in the current study. Graham et al. (2002: 183) refer to the former as ‘the use of multiple methods’ and the latter as ‘the use of multiple data sources’.

Additionally, there are two sub-categories of methodological triangulation: ‘within methods’ triangulation and ‘between methods’ triangulation, which were identified in Denzin’s typology (Denzin, 1970 cited in Cohen et al. 2011: 197). The former is related to ‘the replication of a study as a check on reliability and theory confirmation’ and the latter is concerned with ‘the use of more than one method in the pursuit of a given study (ibid: 197). Between methods triangulation is used in this study. The next section deals with the reasons for selecting the particular research methods used in this study.

3.3. Methods

As mentioned above, a continuous debate emerged in the 70s and 80s between those who favoured using a quantitative or qualitative approach (Dörnyei 2007: 163). In an attempt to find a middle ground, researchers have not only accepted the value of both methods, they have also combined the approaches. As Punch (2005) argues, the purposes of the two approaches overlap. Similarly, Miles and Huberman (1994: 42) (cited in Punch 2005: 235) state that ‘Both types of data can be productive for descriptive, reconnoitring, exploratory, inductive, opening up purposes. Equally, both can be productive for explanatory, confirmatory, and hypothesis-testing purposes’. The point is that the two approaches can be combined within the framework of one particular research project (Bryman, 2008).

In this study, a mixed-methods approach to assess CS use in English foreign language classrooms and the effects of teaching these strategies. Bergman (2008) maintains that researchers might benefit from using both quantitative and qualitative approaches in a single research study. The former provides the researcher with representative and generalised findings, whereas the latter gives depth and contextualisation to the findings.

Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003 cited in Bergman 2008) argue that when researchers use mixed-methods in their research approaches, they develop understanding of phenomena, gain different views about the phenomenon, and assess the credibility of inferences developed from a research project. Furthermore, Punch (2009: 290) claims that the combination of the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative methods provides an essential rationale for using a mixed-method research, which in turn broadens our view of the 'research topic'. The current study prefers to use a mixed-method research in order to gain both general and specific picture of the teaching and use of CSs.

In relation to this, Denzin (1989: 307) cited in Denscombe (2010: 141) states that 'By combining multiple observations, theories, methods and data sources, [researchers] can hope to overcome the intrinsic bias that comes from single-methods, single observer, and single theory studies. The combination of quantitative and qualitative methods is considered to be feasible, and beneficial in solving puzzles and can solve problems that 'pure designs' cannot conquer (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003).

However, a mixed-method and quasi-experimental approach has some disadvantages when used in a social research projects. For example, as shown in Denscombe (2010), it might be difficult for the researcher to combine the results which are gathered using different research tools which, in turn, might require additional explanation and justification. The explanation may introduce an element of personal bias.

Research Questions	Research instruments			
	Questionnaire	Interviews	Observation (classroom data)	Speaking tasks
Question 1: Increase in the usage of CSs by Students	✓		✓	✓
Question 2: The impact of CSs on learners' confidence in English		✓		
Question 3: Students' comments on their attitudes		✓		

Table 7: Outline of the usage of research instruments

The selection of research method/s depends on the purpose of the research. Four general research purposes are illustrated in table 8 below.

Research Method	Research Epistemology & Paradigm	Purpose	Research tools	Limitations
1. [Quasi-] experimental	Interpretivist Qualitative	Demonstrating relationships between variables [Teaching of CSs and its impact]	Pre/Post-Tasks	Certain variables are impossible to be studied
2. Survey [a] Researches	Positivist Quantitative	Gather information about peoples' actions [use and frequency of CSs]	Questionnaires	It is limited in formulating predictions or describing causes of behaviour
Survey [b] Researches	Interpretivist Qualitative	Gather information about peoples' attitudes and opinions	Interviews	It is limited in formulating predictions or describing causes of behaviour
3. Naturalistic Observation	Interpretivist Qualitative	Observing the behaviour in natural situation	Observational Documentation	Not only shares surveys' limitations, but also outside factors are not controllable
4. Correlation Studies	Positivist Qualitative	Describing the relations between variables	Questionnaires	Low to moderate control over outside factors, cannot establish cause and effect

Table 8: Types of research and their tools adapted from (Spata 2003: 12)

Table 8 illustrates the relationship of research paradigms to specific research tools and their purposes. These paradigms can be used not only to gather information about peoples' attitude, opinions and behaviours, but also to establish and describe the relationship between variables in a natural setting, such as the teaching of CSs and its impact on language learners.

In relation to research paradigms, Spata (2003: 11) called quasi-experimental or non-experimental designs '*descriptive*', because they describe behaviours and events. However, she adds that unlike true experimental design, it is impossible to predict the cause of those behaviours or events in quasi-experimental or non-experimental designs, due to the fact that there is no control over one or more variables. Natural observation is used to gather data and descriptions of behaviour which takes place in a natural situation. Nevertheless, its ability to predict the cause of behaviour may be limited (ibid: 11).

Surveys, in contrast, gather responses using questionnaires and interviews as research tools. Even though useful information can be collected by using well-constructed questionnaires and interviews, explaining or predicting the causes of behaviour can be difficult. In correlation studies, researchers employ use tools such as interviews and observations to identify the relationships between variables. Although such studies cannot necessarily identify the causes of behaviour, they can have a low and moderate level of control over outside factors, which may make some explanation possible (ibid: 13).

Having considered the paradigms and approaches discussed above, the researcher chose a pragmatist paradigm, which entails both quantitative and qualitative approaches, to obtain different views of the phenomena of interest. For this paradigm, the most appropriate research instruments were a questionnaire, an observation, an interview, and speaking tasks in the framework of a quasi-experiment.

3.3.1. Questionnaire

All students in the two groups were asked to complete a five-point Likert-scale (See Appendix E) questionnaire in week 1 and week 12 (pre/post), with questions focusing on both targeted communication strategies and non-targeted untaught

strategies such as translation strategy, non-linguistic strategies and responding strategies. These items were modelled on Lam's (2006) questionnaire (See Appendix E). As recommended by Dörnyei (2012), they were designed to be simple, unambiguous, and accessible, for reliability. Each covered only one strategy. The researcher used 14 items (Appendix E) to identify and investigate the CSs used by the students.

Questionnaires were used, because they are quick and easy to administer, and give useful feedback to students, which can increase student motivation. According to Denscombe (2010), questionnaires are effective, low maintenance research tools, economic in time, money, and materials. Another advantage is that face to face contact with participants is avoided, so that a potential source of bias is kept to a minimum (Denscombe, 2010). A further advantage is that they provide a base for launching further probes for the design of the interviews and other research tools, in this instance the classroom programme.

On the other hand, Oxford (1996) argues that questionnaires do not necessarily provide direct evidence of learners' actual strategic behaviours in specific tasks. In addition, Denscombe (2003), claims that it is hard to know the truthfulness of a response. Also, a level of imposition might occur when a researcher designs the questionnaire. It is necessary, therefore, to employ additional research tools.

3.3.1.1 Piloting

The first draft of the questionnaire was tested informally. Colleagues and friends were asked to read the draft and provide their comments on it. The purpose of the pre-test was to gain feedback about each item (Cohen et al. 2011).

Four Arab students at the school of Humanities in DMU University participated in pilot phase one. They were secondary English language teachers in their countries (three from Libya and one from Saudi Arabia), who had come to the UK to pursue postgraduate degrees. These students were asked not only to respond to the items, but also to comment on their clarity, ambiguity, wording and other related aspects. Comments were used to improve the questionnaire for additional piloting.

In pilot phase two, two experts in research methods, as well as my supervisor, provided more comments on the content and form of the questionnaire (See Appendix I), to improve it before piloting in Libya. A cover note, giving the purpose of the questionnaire and answering instructions, was made after two piloting phases. The final result was a two-page questionnaire with 14 items asking for responses on a 5-point Likert scale. Each item was a statement with which respondents marked the extent of their agreement. The concepts and procedures used to assess reliability and validity of the questionnaire during the pilot study are described in the following section.

3.3.1.2 Questionnaire reliability and validity

Validity

Validity describes the degree to which a research tool or technique actually measures what it claims to measure. As Denscombe (2002: 100) states “reliability depends on the accuracy of the questions asked, the data collection methods and its explanations offered”. The validity of results depends on both the accuracy and reliability of the data. To enhance validity and accuracy, the researcher needs to revisit and revise the details of the transcripts of the interviews (Shenton 2004). In this study, the questionnaire was highly structured and piloted, as recommended by Lincoln and Guba (1985), to ensure the reliability, as well as the validity, of the research instrument.

Cohen et al. (2001) pointed out that reliability and validity are multi-faceted. These concepts apply to the analysis of data as well as the data collection. They recommend that researchers should not only carefully consider the sampling and the appropriateness of the research tool, but also the statistical treatment of the data. Two experts in the field of education from DMU were asked to evaluate the questionnaire's items, and the questionnaire was modified in light of their comments. In addition, the researcher asked the students who participated in the pilot study to comment on the clarity and problems encountered in answering the questionnaire, which was then revised again. Over the course of these revisions, the number of questionnaire items was reduced from 22 to 14 before the final questionnaire was produced (See Appendix E and F).

Reliability

A technique is considered to be reliable when it is applied the same object repeatedly and gives the same results each time. It is the consistency of a measuring device. (Cohen et al. 2011). Malhorta and Birks (2003) consider that reliability is affected by not only the accuracy of the questionnaire construct, but also the homogeneity of the questions. For increased reliability, the questionnaire used the split half method, in which both groups (experimental and control group) answered the same pre and post questionnaires, followed by a semi-structured interview.

For both reliability and accuracy the statistical analysis of the data used SPSS software with a t-test to correlate the pre and post means for each group (dependent). A t-test was also used for correlating independent means between the average of each group in the pre-test and in the post test. This software is widely used and accepted in research.

3.3.2. Observation (Collection of Classroom language data)

Nunan (1989) and Malderez (2003) argue that observation is a ‘tool’ mainly used to deepen our understanding of language learning and teaching, which in turn, contributes to professional growth. Williams (1989) states that the purpose of observation is not to make value judgements, but to investigate and identify the shortcomings and strengths of classroom activity. Nunan (1989) also maintains that observation has great value because it can verify and inform analysis of the changing behaviour of participants (cf. Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2011). He also claimed that observation can help the researcher to measure learners’ engagement, task fulfilment, management of speaking opportunities, as well as the effect of particular classroom activities.

Denscombe (2010) observes that another advantage is that a useful amount of data can be gathered quickly. The data can be reliable, if observations are done carefully, but reliability is dependent on the consistency of the observers’ techniques. To achieve reliability, the researcher had the participating observers engage in a moderation process after an observation. A drawback of observation is that the behaviour of the participants might change when they realise that they are being

observed. In addition, using observation might compromise the privacy of the participants. To safeguard against this, and assure protection and confidentiality of data, a consent form was given to participants (See 3.10). The observation scheme focused on student to student interaction, rather than teachers' behaviour or teachers-students' interaction (See Spada and Fröhlich, 1995). The researcher took notes on the verbal exchanges (where CSs were used) in peer/group discussions and noted learners' behaviour including body language (See Appendix G).

Naturalistic observation 'classroom language data' was used to answer research question 1: Does explicit training in a specific CS result in increased usage by learners? This form of observation is commonly used in social science to directly record behaviour (e.g. what people do and say) (cf. Denscombe, 2010). It aims to obtain information about the behaviour of the participants in natural settings. During the course of the observation, both qualitative and quantitative classroom language data was collected, and it was decided to consider the significance of the data in terms of a correlation between them (See section 4.5 for more details). To do this, four or five students in each group were audio recorded while doing group work at the beginning and end of the course (pre/post tasks), and during peer/ group discussion every second week in the experimental group (as part of their training lessons). 10 recordings were made in the experimental group, with additional the pre and post-treatment recordings (a total of 14 recordings, see 3.8). Each recording lasted about 10 to 15 minutes. The researcher did not video record the observed activities for cultural reasons. As most of the participants were women, in Islamic culture, such recording would not be accepted.

3.3.3. Oral Interview

Interviews are an appropriate method for getting detailed information about facts, feelings, experiences and also addressing sensitive issues (Denscombe 2003). Cohen et al., (2011) argue that interviews afford the researcher information about phenomena and can elicit data in depth and in detail. The rationale for using a semi-structured interview format lies in its flexibility and the opportunity it provides for the analysis of certain research aspects in depth (Cohen et al. 2011). In the current study, a semi-structured interview was used in week twelve, to investigate their perceptions of

learners' communicative strategy use over the intervention period and their attitudes to the training (Research Question 3 and 4). The semi-structured interview started by asking some questions, and giving students space to react. This format allowed for greater flexibility than a structured interview, which is more like an oral questionnaire, and enabled the researcher to probe appropriately when it was necessary to get details (ibid) (See Appendix H). Even though some questions might have been prepared by the researcher before conducting the semi-structured interview, it still encouraged two-way communication, and was less intrusive to the interviewees than more structured interviews.

Denscombe (2010), claims that the information of semi-structured interviews can provide depth and sufficient insights of the topic to the researcher. He believes that, because of the face to face situation, the interviewees might achieve an element of relaxation and expand their account of personal experience. When extra information is produced in a semi-structured interview, the administrative burden involves the task of transcribing and coding the interview (ibid). It is also argued that finding a balance between open-ended and focused interviewing is a demanding challenge for the research. However, it is believed that this can be solved by practice (Adams and Cox, 2008).

For this practice, the interviewer needs to go through a training process which allows him/her to tackle any possible difficulties (Cohen et al. 2011). It is believed that, the nature of the semi-structured interview and the kind of human interaction it entails encourages subjectivity and bias. The former takes place when the interviewer loses objectivity whereas the latter happens through the interaction between the interviewer and the interviewee. This may, in turn, impinge on the validity of the whole data (ibid). The epistemology is pointed out in Guba and Lincoln (1994: 111):

“The investigator [researcher] and the object of investigation [participants] are assumed to be interactively linked so that the "findings" are literally created as the investigation proceeds”.

3.3.3.1. Piloting the Interview

The piloting design had the following objectives: to find out students' attitudes about the training programme and their use of CSs and to identify the factors which might affect their attitude. The researcher initially formulated questions which related to these objectives, which included:

How do you feel about the teaching of CSs?

With whom you would like to interact and in what context?

Have you faced any problems in programme of study so far?

In January 2011, before implementing the planned data collecting process (cancelled due to the conflict in Libya), the pilot interviews were conducted with four students in the English Language Department at the Faculty of Arts in Misurata University. The researcher introduced the topic to interviewees and provided a consent form to sign, giving permission to tape-record the interviews (See Appendix D). During the interview, the participants answered questions and expressed themselves freely. Participants replied in short responses to the questions, which might be attributed to their insufficient knowledge of English as well as their lack of confidence in the use CSs. Piloting, however, raised other issues as well, such as the variations in knowledge, attitudes and enthusiasm among the English language learners.

This practice in using the semi-structured interview helped the researcher to re-formulate the final research questions. It also provided the participants with an opportunity to practice their use of the CSs of the training programme. Such piloting accustomed students to responding in this context, which facilitated their performance in the future interview. Also, the pilot study helped the researcher to become aware of the time necessary for analysing the data of both the interviews and the questionnaires.

3.3.3.2. Interview Schedule

The schedule of interview was based around processes of the pilot interviews and pilot surveys. All interviews were conducted in English.

In the first phase, at the end of the field study, a sample of 7 volunteers (2 male and 5 female) from the experimental group were individually invited to a semi-structured interview of 10 to 15 minutes, during which their responses were recorded.

In the second phase, the researcher sent some questions by email to one of the cooperating teachers of the experimental group, and requested that they ask the student (one of three males) questions about aspects of gender and its effect on the use of CSs. However, answering questions about gender from only male learners might have affected the validity of the study. For this reason female learners were also included in the third phase. It is worth mentioning that, there were more female than male students not only in both the experimental and control group, but also in the English department as a whole. This might be attributed to the university enrolment process and to the population gender structure in Libya where more females are born than males. (See Appendix A for more details).

In the third phase, some potentially interesting findings encouraged the researcher to incorporate certain additional aspects into this stage of fieldwork research. More specifically, discussions with supervisory team encouraged the researcher to identify a number of areas that could be explored in further detail with mixed gender Libyan and international students. (See figure 3.2 below)

These topics included:

- A consideration of whether CSs are cross-cultural or culturally-specific. If the latter, are there cultural sensitivities about the use of certain CSs?
- A consideration of gender issues. Following from the second point above, the thesis could also consider influence of gender. Do men and women use different CSs (or are they happier using some rather than others)? Again, is this culturally-specific?
- A consideration of issues such as the influence of age and personality on the use of CSs and the extent to which these strategies are instinctive and spontaneous. Does age or personality has some kind of effect on choice of CSs? Are CSs used instinctively? (or, do participants think that they are instinctive)?

The researcher felt that a study of longer term effects of CS instruction would be a distinctive contribution to knowledge in this area. Therefore those who had participated in the previous interviews were re-contacted 10 months later, but unfortunately, only a limited number of participants responded (two males and one female) (See the figure 3.2 below).

Interview	Phase1, week 12	Phase2, March (2013) by email	Phase3, in June (2013)	Phase4(2014) by email	Total
Experiment Group	2 (Male)	3 (male)	3 (Male)	2 (Male)	20
	5 (Female)		4 (Female)	1 (Female)	
International S	x	X	5 (Male)		5
Sub-total	7	3	12		25

Figure 2: Description of the Interview Data collection scheme

3.3.4. Pre/Post-test Speaking Tasks

Speaking tasks simulating ‘natural’ situations were used in the pre and post-tests to elicit usage of communication strategies, which might be affected by training (See Appendix J). Such communicative tasks were viewed by Nunan (1989 cited in Mitsuko, 2009) as an effective way to not only to help language learners in the classroom but also to help researchers examine the acquisition of the target language. Brown (1991 cited in Mitsuko, 2009) claims that the opportunity and need to exchange information in turn leads to negotiating of meaning and mutual understanding, a ideal context for using CSs:

“Two-ways tasks’ is the term used for tasks in which both participants (in a dyad) and all participants (in a group) process some but not all of information they need to resolve the task, and so, while everyone is able to contribute information, everyone also needs to get some information”.

This study used conversational tasks on familiar topics the pre and post-task data collection process. These included topics such as the learners' opinions about the conflict which had recently taken place in Libya. Such topics are comprehensible, authentic and provide the students with a situation that encourages them to use different communication strategies, to convey meanings, and solve problems (Spata, 2003). Four groups in the two classes/groups were observed and tape recorded in the pre/post task data collection processes. Everyday tasks suggested by researchers of CS teaching such as Dörnyei and Thurrell (1991), Kehe and Kehe (1994 cited in Dörnyei 1995), and Dörnyei (1995), were selected to be used in the teaching lessons of CSs (See Appendix K).

3.4. Sampling

The method of using both a target and a larger population group is widely used in educational research. The target group, the subject of study, is a subset of the larger group and shares characteristics with it (Larson-Hall, 2010). In this study, English language learners in the English department at Misurata University were the wider population. A sub-set of forty, first year English language learners in the same department were the target population (See 3.3.1).

Two main sampling methods, random, and non-random or purposive sampling are discussed by Cohen et al. (2007) and Denscombe (2007). In random sampling, every member of the wider population has an equal chance of being selected in the sample. However, the researcher has no control in the selection process. In contrast, the researcher often has the authority either to include or exclude a particular subset of the wider population in non-random or purposive sampling (Gay and Airasian, 2003, Cohen et al. 2007, and Bryman, 2008). A non-random or purposive sampling strategy was employed in this study.

The entire population of first year students could not be investigated due to the constraints of time, money, and the nature of both the intervention and methodology. Bryman (2008) observes that sample size can be affected by time and cost, and that, in general, the bigger the sample, the more representative it will be. He recommends

however, that in practice, the size should not be so big as to render management of the sample problematic.

Dörnyei (2012) points out, in his workshop ‘Questionnaire Design and Analysis’, that the sample should have a normal distribution, which requires a minimum of 30 people. Cohen et al. (2007) also recommend 30 participants as a minimum for researchers who intend to apply statistical analysis on their data, whereas 10% to 20% of the population for descriptive research was proposed by Gay and Airasian (2003: 112).

3.4.1. The sample of this study

A sample of 40 students from the target population (158, Appendix B) participated. Participants were divided into classes constituting a control group and a treatment group, each with 20 students. They were all taken from first-year English major learners at the Faculty of Arts at Misurata University. All their education had been in Arabic until high school, where they had studied English for 3 to 4 years. The language of instruction at that level is almost entirely English (99%), but some subjects are taught in Arabic (e.g. Arabic language and psychology). At high schools, students took up to 19 classes of forty-five minutes a week, which included English grammar, phonetics, speaking, reading, writing, listening, as well as lab work.

Because of the resources and the time needed for the preparation, the complex scheduling, and the data analysis required, the researcher decided that a sample of 48 students of both genders aged between 18 and 21 would serve the purpose of the investigation, rather than attempting to use the wider cohort of 158 first year students.

Participants shared the same heterogeneous mix of characteristics, such as age, gender mix, and educational background. The control and experimental groups were randomly selected from the seven existing first year English group, and all classes were of mixed ability. Both the treatment and control groups had some higher and some lower level learners. As discussed in chapter one (1.1), the level of the students was assessed as approximately intermediate.

3.5. Research Design

The underlying hypothesis of the study was that training in CSs would not only increase knowledge and use of the targeted strategies, but would also enhance participation in different activities/tasks in and out the classroom (See table 9 below). It was also expected that usage of strategies such as ‘Reduction and ‘Repetition’, along with the non-taught strategies of ‘Translation’, ‘Responding’ and ‘Non-linguistic’, would decrease as a result of instruction (cf. Alibakhshi and Padiz ,2011).

Faucette (2001), Hua and Mohd (2012) and Rabab’ah (2013) argue that some CSs such as non-linguistic strategies (mime and gestures), responding and translation are also used by students. These strategies were not taught in the current study, but the researcher decided to note their use. On the other hand, strategies such as ‘Pause fillers’, ‘Circumlocution’ and ‘Reduction strategies’ were explicitly taught to the experimental group (See 3.6 below). To test the hypotheses, a quasi-experimental research design was implemented in which two similar groups of English foreign language learners were compared as they carried out identical group activities. The experimental group had training in the use of CSs, while the control group did not.

3.6. Strategies targeted for teaching and investigation

In the present study, ten CSs were selected from the four typologies of Tarone (1981), Dörnyei (1995) and Bejarano et al. (1997): *reduction strategies*, *achievement strategies*, *modified-interaction strategies* and *social-interaction strategies* (table 9). Bejarano et al. (1997) recommends implementing a broad range of types of CSs in a study, to provide natural discussions settings in L2/LF (ibid: 211). Researchers such as Tarone (1981), Dörnyei (1995) and Bejarano et al. (1997) have established that the strategies below are the most commonly used. The reduction strategies consisted of ‘topic avoidance’ and ‘message abandonment’. Also, another three non-taught strategies, ‘responding’, ‘translation’ and non-linguistic were considered in this study because it was expected that English language learners would resort to them while attempting to communicate in English. Therefore, the total number of strategies investigated was 14.

Name of Strategy	Definition of Strategy	Time
Reduction Strategies*		
1.a Topic avoidance: & 1.b Message abandonment:	The learner attempts not to talk about aspects in the target language he/she does not know. The learner abandons the topic due to language difficulties.	1.30
Achievement Strategies*		
2. Circumlocution:	The learner describes the characteristics of the objects instead of using the appropriate target item.	1.30
3. Using fillers:	‘Using empty words such as ‘well’, ‘actually’, ‘you know’ etc. as a stalling device to gain time to think of ‘what to say’ or ‘how to say it’, (Lam 2006)’.	1.30
4. Repetition:	‘To ask the speaker to repeat what he/she has just said as a stalling device to gain time to think of ‘what to say’ or ‘how to say it’, (Lam 2006)’.	1.30
Social-Interaction Strategies		
5. Paraphrasing:**	Using alternative expressions with similar meanings to clarify the previous speaker’s contribution.	1.30
6. Facilitating:	A participant uses ‘promoters’ words that encourage continuation of the conversation, (Bejarano et al. 1997)’.	1.30
7. Seeking an opinion:	A participant asks for the speaker's opinion or seeks relevant or more detailed information, (Bejarano et al. 1997)’.	1.30
Modified-Interaction Strategies		
8. Asking for clarification:	Asking the interlocutor to clarify the meaning of what he/she has just said to facilitate comprehension.	1.30

9. Repairing:	‘This enables participants to correct grammatical or lexical errors in the target language that were made by themselves or other members of the group, (Bejarano et al. 1997).	1.30
10. Giving assistance:	‘This enables participants to help other members of the group who have difficulty expressing themselves in the target language and appeal for assistance, (Bejarano et al. 1997).	1.30

Table 9: Typology of CSs adopted in this study

3.7. Data collection procedures

Data was collected over a 12 week (one semester) period, from November 2012 to February 2013. Before the instruction in CSs, the target respondents (40 first semester students) were asked to complete the pre-questionnaire. The aim of the questionnaires was to determine the students’ perceptions of how frequently they used CSs when speaking English. (See appendix E) Only 40 questionnaires in each stage (20 for the experimental group in the pre/post stage and 20 for the control group in the pre/post stage) were used, as incomplete questionnaires were rejected.

The reasons for incompleteness were not investigated. A reluctance to participate may have been a cause, although students were informed that they could withdraw from the study at any time without repercussions. Respondents were also asked to participate in assessment activities/discussions about the pre/post-tasks. Students were also encouraged to freely share their experiences among themselves. Audio-recordings and classroom observations were used to gather quantitative data about frequency of use, and qualitative data about awareness and the use of appropriate strategies during pair and group discussions. In addition, some students in the experimental group were asked to participate in semi-structured interviews at the end of the field study, to gather qualitative data about their perceptions of the teaching and their use of CSs as well as personal factors which influenced these perceptions.

3.8. The intervention (a description of the CSs teaching programme)

The purpose of the training programme was to make students aware of CSs, so that they would use them in communication.

Different teachers taught the control and experimental groups. The experimental group's teacher from the Philippines was experienced and trained in teaching CSs, and used a communicative teaching approach. A Libyan teacher taught the control group. This teacher had no formal training in teaching communication strategies, as his role was not to train students; he was only facilitating exercises.

The researcher proposed ten speaking lessons (a total of 15 hours), which were spread over twelve weeks for each of the two groups (treatment and control). The two groups engaged in the same speaking activities in the English oral lessons. The treatment group, however, received training in the use of CSs, and was given the opportunity to use and consolidate these strategies, whereas the control group was not. Most of the lessons were tape recorded, as well as the pre/post tasks. The researcher was not present in every lesson, to allow students accustom themselves to activities without feeling constantly observed.

The four steps below (table 10) were expected to last for 30-45 minutes in each lesson. These were followed by a discussion on each activity or task that the students performed. After the discussion, the teacher helped the students to reflect on the process and discuss their opinion on the strategy, using awareness-raising techniques. Both the control and experimental group lessons lasted 90 minutes in total. The objectives of experimental group's CSs teaching lessons are summarised in the following table.

lesson	Objectives
Lesson 1: This applies to all lessons	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Teacher introduces the concept of CSs (topic avoidance);- The teacher writes expressions on board (e.g. CS using fillers yeah, right and uh huh) and begins with pre teaching/presentation of vocabulary and structures what about pronunciation, stress and checking understanding;- The teacher models the use of CSs with a student. Student will also be encouraged to do student/student modelling;- The teacher provides training in the use of CSs i.e. students carry out pair/group

	work activities and the teacher monitors their performing and; - Discussion takes place at the end of the lesson (e.g. advantage and disadvantage of CS).
Lesson 2	- Provide training in the use of circumlocution.
Lesson 3	- Provide training in the use of Pause Fillers.
Lesson 4	- Provide training in the use of repetition.
Lesson 5	- Provide training in the use of paraphrase.
Lesson 6	- Provide training in the use of facilitating.
Lesson 7	- Provide training in the use of seeking an opinion.
Lesson 8	- Provide training in the use of asking for clarification.
Lesson 9	- Provide training in the use of repairing.
Lesson 10	- Provide training in the use of giving assistance

Table 10. Summary of the objectives of the CSs teaching lessons

Thus, an explicit strategy training plan was implemented in the treatment group, as recommended by McCarthy and O’Keeffe (2004), and Chamot (2005). Learners in the experimental group were informed of the rationale and the value of strategy training. They were then taught the target strategies, and given opportunities to use them. The control group engaged in discussion activities using the same topics as the experimental group, with no teaching in or reference whatsoever to strategy use. Students in this group were asked to do speaking exercises as part of a regular English class during the rest of the lesson. Both groups did the same speaking exercises. For ethical reasons, so as not to possibly disadvantage the control group, after the end of experiment they were trained in the use of CSs.

For the objectives below, identified by Dörnyei (1995: 63-64) (*in italics*) the teacher used the following interventions:

- 1) *‘Raising learners’ awareness about the nature and communicative potential CSs’*: The teacher helped his/her students to be aware of CSs which are already in their repertoire.
- 2) *‘Encouraging students to be willing to take risks and use CSs’*: students were provided with handouts which had useful phrases for the use of CSs.
- 3) *‘Providing opportunity for practice in strategy use’*: the teacher asked his/her student to practice some activities/tasks using a CS. Information in handouts could be used as a reference in such situations.

The treatment and control groups were assigned the same communicative tasks (See Appendix J). These were different, but comparable, for the pre- and post-test, in order to avoid a rehearsed discussion.

In the experimental group, the first session started with a listening activity, where the students compared two conversations and analysed the reasons why one was more successful. The purpose and usage of the CSs contained within the listening were then explicitly introduced by the teacher.

CS 1 Topic Avoidance

Topic: Communication Strategies (CSs): Topic Avoidance

Time Allotment: 90 minutes

Level: First Semester Students

Intended Learning Outcomes:

At the end of the session, the participants are expected to:

1. Identify common expressions used in several discourses
2. Prepare dialogues for various situations
3. Use common expressions in appropriate situations
4. Collaborate as a pair/team in organizing group tasks or presentations
5. Conduct oral presentations on various topics
6. Practice courtesy in any given communicative activity

Materials: recorded conversation, PowerPoint presentation, laptop, projector

Procedure:*Motivation*

- The session will start with a listening activity.
- The participants will listen to two conversations that will last for about 5 minutes. After which, they will be asked to make a comparison.
- The participants will identify which conversation is successful and will highlight on the reasons that make it as such. This may take another 5 minutes.

Lesson Proper

- The cooperating teacher will present the topic about Communication Strategies and how these strategies can help in making conversations effective and meaningful. In this part, only general introduction about each strategy will be provided. As a strategy, the teacher will capitalize on the background knowledge of the participants. This active discussion will consume about 20 minutes.
- In presenting the first strategy which is “Topic Avoidance”, the teacher will employ the inductive approach. This may take about 20 minutes.
- The participants will be asked about situations calling for the use of Topic Avoidance strategy. The participants will give their answers.
- After which, the participants will be asked how they can evade these situations. The participants will provide expressions that they may use.
- Using modelling, the cooperating teacher will provide more explanation concerning such strategy. The teacher will present common expressions for Topic Avoidance. These expressions were gathered from reviewed literatures by the researcher.

Application

- Each participant will be asked to choose a partner and present a short exchange using Topic Avoidance strategy. They will be given 20 minutes to prepare.

Task Presentation

- The participants will present their short exchanges. Another 15 minutes may be spent for this activity.

Recap

- The participants will have a brief review of the session's topics. This may take 3 minutes.

Assignment:

Within 2 minutes, the participants will be asked to read in advance about "Circumlocution" and they will be oriented concerning the next session's activities.

The use of "topic avoidance" in a real life discussion by learners in the experiment group

Example:

N: I miss Huda so much. I want to visit her next week. Do you want to come with me?

A: Huda! You have to change your mind; she is not in a good condition to meet people or visitors.

N: Oh, what is the problem?

A: Oh, come on Nada, you do not know? [Nada used 'a facial expression]

A: She got divorced last week.

N: Oh my Goodness, why? What's wrong? She and Ali was a wonderful couple, I just can't believe that!!

A: I'd rather not to talk about people's life

N: Oh, as you want. Let's talk about friend's life Fatima, Selma and Elman.

A: They are fine, we have meeting next month.

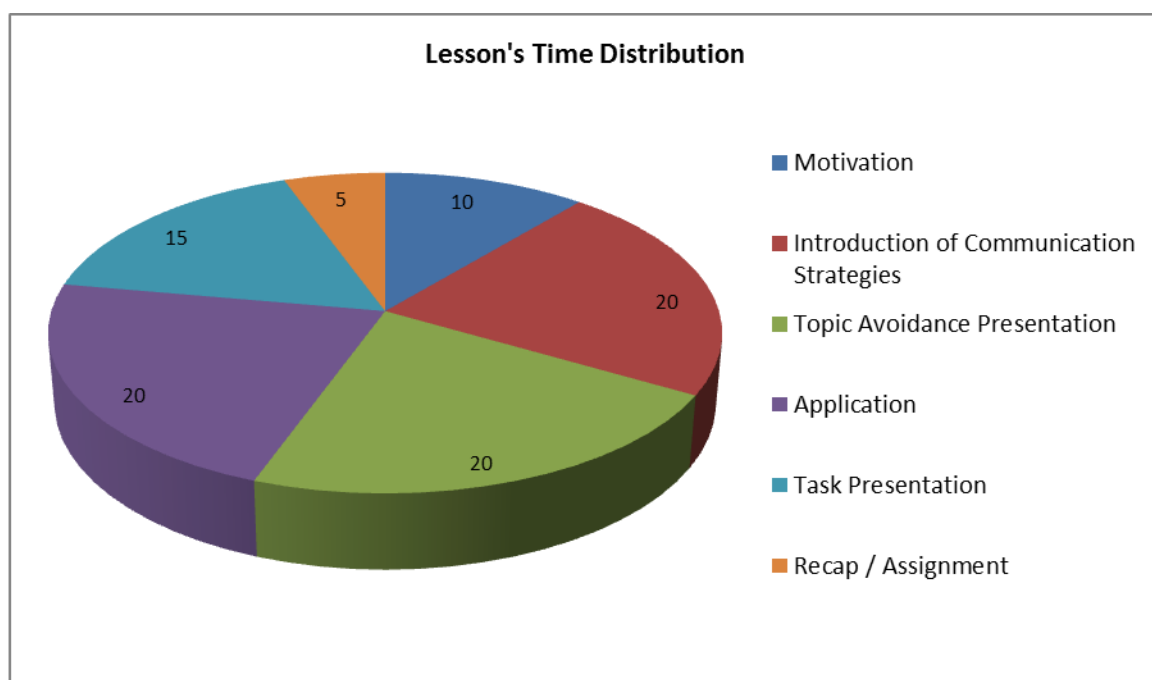
N: That sounds enjoyable! How about if you invite Huda?

A: I don't know sorry, but can you ask another one. Oh can you ask Samah because she is her *umm* neighbour.

N: Has Samah's family moved to another area?

A: Yes, they moved two months ago.

N: Oh, yeah, ok, we'll miss her.



***time distribution in minutes

Figure 3: Distribution of Classroom Intervention Time

CS 2 Circumlocution

Teaching ‘Circumlocution’ involved activities in which learners were asked to define or describe objects, by using a relative clause. In teaching circumlocution strategy, the teacher followed the same approach as was used in the first lesson, which involved explanations, examples, and explicit modelling with selected students. Guidelines for making descriptions were also provided by the teacher. In pairs, one student gave a description and the other guessed the word. Afterwards, the students discussed how circumlocution can improve their communication skills.

For example:

The researcher and the cooperating teacher created the table below to use in encouraging the students to employ circumlocution strategy:

<i>Object:</i>	<i>Basketball</i>	
<i>Description</i>		<i>Paraphrase</i>
<i>It's made up of leather.</i>		<i>Its material is leather.</i>
<i>It has circular shape.</i>		<i>It's round.</i>

Describing Objects table

Size	Quality	Shape	Colour	Origin	Material	Purpose
It's	It's	It's	It's	It's	It's	It's
45 cm high	Practical	Spherical	Silver	Germany	Metal	Boil water
3 m long	Long-lasting	Circular	Black	the USA	Steel	Cut paper
5 mm wide	Reliable	Curved	Blue	Japan	Glass	Repair things
Big	Smooth	Long and thin	Red	Saudi Arabia	Plastic	Call someone
Small	Strong	Round	Yellow	China	Rubber	Contain gas
Little short	Soft	Oval	White	Libya	Wood	Tighten nuts
Of medium size	Modern	Pointed	Maroon	the UK	Cloth	Find place

Figure 4: Student Information Sheet for describing objects



It's long and thin. It's yellow. It's made of wood and it's hard. It has a point end. It has an eraser on the other end. It is used for writing.

In the control group, the cooperative teacher used material designed for Language Skills I, a syllabus that addresses both speaking and listening skills of students. This material was designed by one of the teachers in the English department in Misurata University. As mentioned previously, students in the control group received no specific training of the use of CSs. During his lesson, the teacher in the control group spent the first hour teaching a normal English speaking class, and in the last half hour he used the same example as was used by the experimental group, without referring to the communicative strategy. For example, he presented the same describing objects table and asked his students to use the information to create useful sentences and effective conversation.

In addition, the researcher and the cooperative teacher provided the students with prompt cards in order to stimulate particular conversations and to make them employ specific strategies. This was applied to both groups, to cover all the intended CSs and to ensure that they used the same topics.

Ex:

Directions You will have to talk about the topic for one or two minutes. You have one minute to talk about what you're going to say.

Talk about you home/town

You should say

Where it is

What makes people in your home/town different

What it is famous for

And explain why people should visit your home/town.

CS 3 Fillers

Learners were encouraged to identify and use fillers in sentences and dialogues (Appendix K). Situations calling for usage of fillers were presented, along with examples of the phrases and of the short structures of the fillers. Afterwards, students were given role play conversations which had challenging questions that might require time to answer. Students used the following fillers:

"Um..."

"Let me think..."

"I'll tell you what..."

CS 4 Repetition

Repetition was presented through a recorded conversation to which students listened. After they had identified and discussed the function of these expressions heard in the recordings, they were presented with other ways to implement the strategy. They were equally encouraged to share their own expressions for asking for repetition.

For practice the students were tasked in pairs to write and present a short conversation, using any expression asking for repetition.

"Do you mind repeating that?" *"Sorry, what did you say?"*
"Where did you say it happened?" *"Did you say...?"*

CS 5 Paraphrasing

The concept was elicited from the students, who had listened to two recorded conversations, one where the speaker paraphrased, and the other where the listener paraphrased. Then other examples of paraphrasing expressions were visually presented, such as:

A: I would like to buy Samsung galaxy III because it's user-friendly.
B: What is a Samsung galaxy III?
A: It is a mobile phone.
B: I thought you are talking about stars or something like that hhh [laughter].
A: No, hhh [laughter] something like I phone.
B: so, you want to buy one because it's easy to use.
A: yes, and it's cheaper than I phone.
B: I agree, it doesn't cost as much as I phone it's only 700 dinars.

Students might also use alternative expressions with similar meanings to clarify the previous speaker's contribution. Dörnyei and Thurrell (1992: 65) specified this as *"describing or exemplifying the object or action whose name you do not know"*.

Example:

The student doesn't know the word 'corkscrew'.

A: Well, I can't remember the word... *'the thing you open the bottle with'*

B: Is it 'corkscrew'?

A That's it!

Dörnyei and Thurrell (1992)

CS 6 Facilitating

The second social-interaction strategy, 'Facilitating', was presented using the expressions suggested by experts. The teacher gave a brief discussion of its meaning.

Then, the students did a pair work exercise. In each pair, one student was given guided questions about a certain topic. As a student tried to answer the questions, their partner used expressions that encouraged the continuity of the conversation such as “*Really?*”, and “*That’s interesting*” with gestures like nodding and while maintaining eye contact (See the whole dialogue in appendix L).

S1: Hi, I am going to talk to you about my family.

S2: Really!

S1: Yes, we are about ah 9 ah 2 parents and ah 7 brothers and sisters.

S2: Interesting! Um, [nodding the head].

S1: Actually, ah we ah we are, I love them ah we always come and eat together and ah we go to picnic together always together.

S2: You help them through.

S1: Yes, we help them ah or trying to solve his problem.

S2: I’d like to know how ah you treat your little brothers?

S1: Oh, they are actually, I don’t talk to them so much, but from time to time.

CS 7 Seeking Opinion

Seeking opinion, which is the third social-interaction strategy, was presented using the activity proposed by Naughton (2006), where a speaker uses seeking opinion expressions to appeal for help. Then the teacher asks the students to design a conversation about the following topics, using seeking opinion strategies.

next holiday

new car

interesting hobby

mobile phone

book to read

CS 8 Asking for Clarification

In presenting the Modified–interaction Strategies, the teacher presented the definitions of each of the identified strategies, ‘Asking for clarification’, ‘Repairing’, and ‘Giving assistance’. An explanation of each strategy was elicited from the students. The teacher drew attention to the situations where these strategies could be used and the

students were given model expressions for each strategy. For ‘Asking for clarification’, several example conversations were presented. The students were then asked to produce similar examples.

S1: You are from Gharain Ali, aren't you?

S2: yes, I am.

S1: Do you feel like you miss someone?

S2: Yes, [laughter].

S1: I meant to say did miss your parents or someone else?

S2: yes, I missed my family, friends and the countryside.

S1: I'm afraid I don't understand that, can you clarify that to me please?

S2: Countryside is when you go out and explore the nature, the surroundings like the beautiful monts in Gharain.

S1: Oh, I do not know this word before thank you for your explanation. I enjoy talking to you.

S2: you are welcome.

CS 9 repairing

‘Repairing’ was taught using a short interview. In pairs, one student was given guided questions and the other responded accordingly. The students took this opportunity to apply the other strategies that they had learned from the previous sessions, such as facilitating, seeking opinion and repetition. Self and peer corrections were used by the participants. Expressions like the following were used:

Speaker A: I want to invent you to my wedding?

Speaker B: Invite

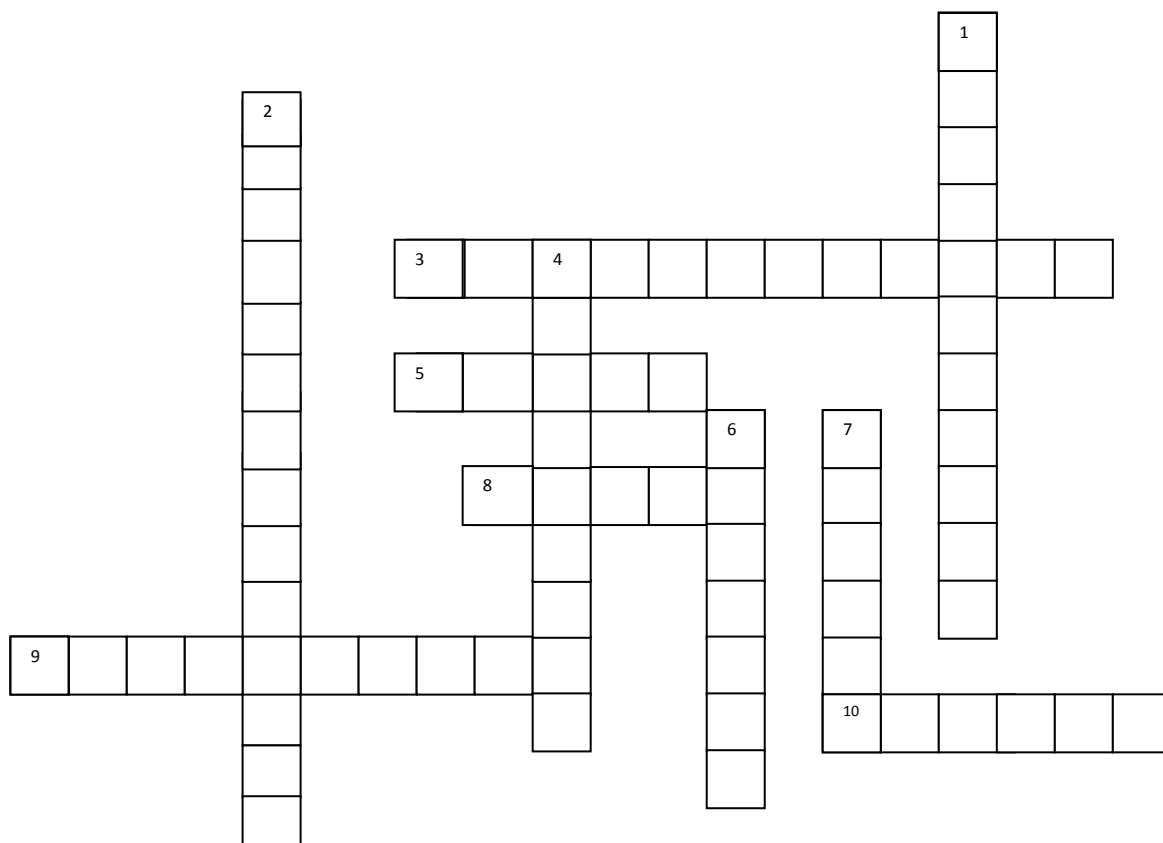
Speaker A: Oh yes, invite.

Student A: How many you are in the family?

Student B: Did you mean to say “How many are you?”

CS 10 Giving Assistance

In discussing ‘Giving assistance’, the teacher used the puzzle activity prepared by the researcher. However, the teacher also prepared a puzzle about CSs:



(Designed by the researcher and cooperative teacher in this study)

Figure 5: Crossword Exercise for students

Across

3. Using different words but keeping the meaning
5. Avoidance slanting the topic to something else
8. Using empty words to gain time to think
9. Asking the speaker to repeat what was said
10. Assistance offering help to address difficulty with the language

Down

1. Use expressions to encourage continuity in the conversation
2. Using descriptions
4. Making corrections
6. Opinion asking for a person's point of view
7. For clarification use expressions to make the message clear

To elicit the structures, and to encourage the students to use expressions asking for clarifications, the teacher intentionally did not give clear instructions. When clarifications had been given, the students were paired and instructed to complete the puzzle. Each student used expressions asking for and giving assistance, to complete the given task.

The teaching materials for the two groups were conceived by the researcher on the basis of resources available for oral group discussion (Klippel, 1985), using techniques described by Pattison (1987), Bygate (1987), Dörnyei and Thurrell (1991), Bejarano et al (1997), and Lam and Wong (2000). In addition, before use in the training programme, the materials were field-tested and revised, after taking into consideration feedback from teachers. Peer and group discussion was the task format for the majority of data collection, as it was deemed to be most likely to give opportunity for a wide range of CSs to be used. The levels of the materials were intermediate and upper-intermediate.

Learners in each class were assigned to five groups of four students in each class for group discussion. All the learners in the two classes underwent pre and post-test evaluation during the first and last week of classes (Time1 and Time2).

3.9. Data Analysis

Hatch's (2002: 153) nine steps of basic typological analysis were followed, to analyse the CSs used by learners. These steps included:

1. Identifying typologies to be analysed.
2. Reading the data, making entries related to typologies.
3. Reading entries by typology and recording the main ideas on a summary sheet.
4. Looking for patterns, relationships, and themes within typologies.
5. Reading data, coding entries according to patterns identified and keeping record of what entries go with which elements of the patterns.

6. Deciding if the patterns are supported by the data, and searching the data for non-examples of the patterns.
7. Looking for relationships among the patterns identified
8. Describing the patterns as one-sentence generalisations
9. Selecting data excerpts that support generalisations.

Class Task	Week 1 (Pre)	Week 12 (Post)	Total No of Recordings
E	1	1	2
C	1	1	2
Sub-total	2 Recordings	2 Recordings	4

Table 11 (a): Task Performance: data collection scheme

To improve reliability of the data, the researcher asked one of the cooperating teachers to observe, assess, and analyse the pre-tasks of the two groups, and to compare this analysis with the researcher's.

Class Task	number of tasks observed during lessons	number of tasks observed in Week 1 & 12 (Pre/Post)		Total No of Recordings
E	x	1	1	2
C	10	1	1	2
Sub-total	10 Recordings	2 Recordings	2 Recordings	4

Table 11 (b): Observation: data collection scheme

The teachers' observations were complemented by questionnaires giving the student's perspective on their use of CSs. The software, '*Statistical Package for the*

Social Sciences’ (SPSS) was used for statistical analysis. Post-test means were compared with pre-test means, using a standard t-test, and the statistical reliability was assessed to find a significance factor, as recommended by Pallant (2010) (See Chapter 4).

Class Task	Week 1 (Pre)	Week 12 (Post)	Total No of Recordings
E	20	20	40
C	20	20	40
Sub-total	40	40	80

Table 12: Questionnaire Data collection Scheme

A detailed individual interview was used to interpret learners’ perceptions and attitudes towards strategy use and strategy training (See table 13 and 3.3.3.2 for more details). A thematic qualitative coding approach was applied to the interview material and the results of the two groups were compared. Bryman (2008) observes that thematic coding is a common way of analysing qualitative data.

The data generated from this study was transcribed and then coded into categories, using three main coding procedures, open, axial and selective, as suggested by Flick (2002) and Dörnyei (2007). In open coding, the data is ‘opened up’ into chunks and segments. Axial coding consists of connecting and grouping the categories and then refining them into concepts which include various subcategories. The final type of analysis, selective coding, involved the identification of the core category or central category and the concentration on the coherence of the whole study (Bryman, 2008).

There is a clear link between this type of analysis and ‘Grounded Theory’ (Dörnyei, 2007; Bryman, 2008). However, some of my strategy categories were predetermined. Most researchers, including Basit (2003), Lee and Fielding (2004), and Dörnyei (2007: 264), suggest using software packages to analyse the data. As suggested by Bryman (2008) the researcher chose an appropriate software package (e.g. CAQDAS).

3.10. Ethical Considerations

Denscombe (2007) argues that research ethics should be considered by researchers not only in the process of data collecting, but also in analysing the data and publishing the results. In this study, ethical issues were considered in accordance with British Education Research Association guidelines BERA (2011). In so doing, the researcher study first sought and obtained permission from the ethical approval committee at DMU University, and later from the head of English language department (HoD) at the Faculty of Arts in Misurata, to conduct classroom research among first year English language learners in the college (See appendix O). The nature of the study, its implications, length, and procedures were explained to the participants. An information sheet was also given to each participant in the two groups. This included information on the confidentiality and anonymity of data, and the right of the participant to withdraw at any time.

Participants were asked to sign a consent form before taking part in the study. This offered a blanket confidentiality, to obtain the trust and protection of participants, as suggested by Cohen et al. (2005). The researcher was fully aware that all classroom-based research implies ethical considerations, and that, as researchers examine aspects related directly to the people's lives, morally and practically they should value the participants' privacy and communities (ibid). In relation to these issues, Denscombe (2007: 141-2) points out that 'people should be protected from researchers who might be tempted to use any means available to advance the state of knowledge on a given topic'.

Good practices in data analysis and interpretation, as recommended by Creswell (2009: 91) were followed. These included:

- Protecting the anonymity of the participants
- Keeping the data for 'reasonable period of time' once it is analysed
- Providing accurate information when the data is interpreted

3.11 Summary

This chapter examined the methodological issues involved in this study. A pragmatist approach was used to investigate the impact of teaching CSs on Libyan learners' speaking performances and perceptions. The choice of an interventionist study was determined by the objectives and the research questions in the current study. There is, however, a continuing need for more intervention studies to examine the effects of strategy training on language learning and proficiency (Chamot 2001). Forty English language learners at Faculty of Arts in Misurata university participated and attended 12 week CSs teaching in this study. A multi-method approach was used to gain both a general picture and an in-depth insight into specific cases. Each method made a distinct contribution to understanding the impact of strategy training and strategy use. A pilot test was carried out before the experiment, to ensure the correct implementation of CSs, and to check the validity of the questionnaire and the interview.

Chapter Four: Findings

4.1. Introduction

The findings of the impact of teaching CSs on learners' use of CSs are discussed in this chapter.

4.2. The analysis of the data obtained from the pre/post questionnaires of the two groups

The frequencies of the pre and post sample members' responses were calculated for each group. The data was analysed using descriptive statistical procedures, along with t-tests, to examine if there were significant differences between the pre- and post-CS mean perceptions of frequency of use. The analysis focused on three areas: the use of CSs before and after instruction, and a comparison of learners' perceptions pre/post-CSs instruction.

Questionnaires were used to provide a profile of Cs usage and to answer research question 1: Does explicit training in a specific CS result in increasing usage by learners?

4.2.1 For the experimental group, the following table shows the number of responses of students reporting a given frequency of usage, and the percentage of students that this represents (before implementation of the strategy training).

CS	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Often		Always		Total
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>F</i>	%	
A. Repetition	7	39	6	33	2	11	3	17	0	0	%
B. Repairing	6	33	3	17	2	11	4	22	3	17	%
C. Circumlocution	3	17	0	0	6	33	3	17	5	28	%

D.Message Abandonment	6	33	1	6	7	39	2	11	2	11	%
E. Topic Avoidance	0	0	1	6	1	6	6	33	10	55	%
F. Responding	0	0	2	11	6	33	7	39	3	17	%
G.Non-linguistic Strategies	0	0	2	11	6	33	5	28	5	28	%
H. Facilitating	0	0	0	0	1	6	3	17	14	77	%
I. Asking for clarification	0	0	2	11	2	11	4	23	10	55	%
J. Seeking an opinion	1	6	0	0	2	11	8	44	7	39	%
K. Giving assistance	5	28	1	6	1	6	2	11	9	50	%
L. Paraphrasing	0	0	1	6	0	0	5	28	12	66	%
M. Using fillers	0	0	1	6	1	6	3	17	13	72	%
N. Translation	13	72	2	11	2	11	1	6	0	0	%

Table 13: Students' perceptions of their CS usage (Experimental group / Pre-assessment)

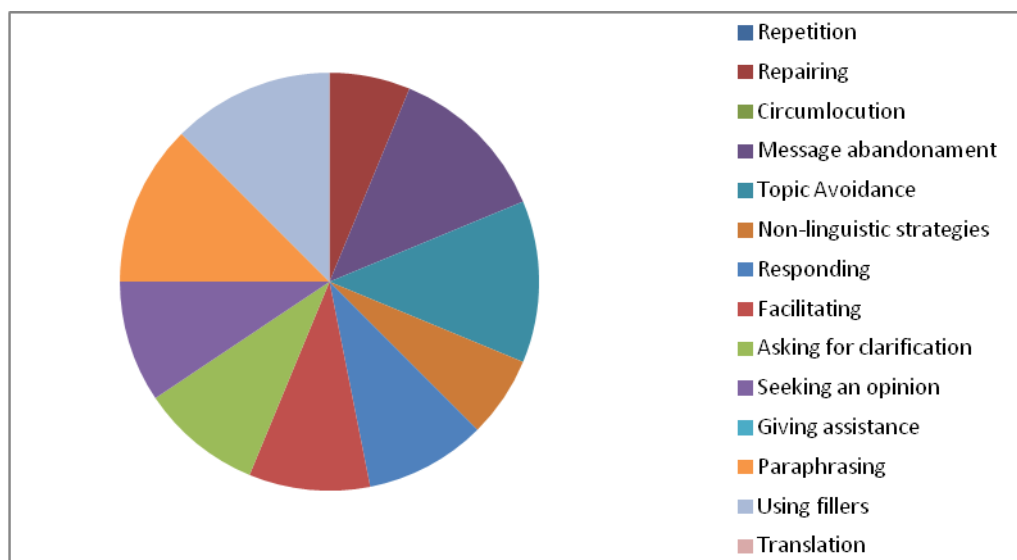


Figure 4.1: Students' perceptions of their CS usage (Experimental group/ Pre-assessment)

As previously mentioned, three of the ten strategies ('Non-linguistic strategies', 'Responding' and 'Translation') were not taught. Of the 13 CSs, the respondents "always" used 7 strategies, "often" used 2 strategies, "sometimes" used 1 strategy, and "never" used 2 strategies. The largest response (14 respondents) (77%) "always" used 'Facilitating'. Seven (39%) of the respondents "never" used 'Repetition' and six (33%) of them "never" used 'Repairing'. The participants "always" used the following CSs: 'Topic avoidance' 10 (55%), 'Facilitating' 14 (77%), 'Asking for clarification' 10 (55%), 'Giving assistance' 9 (50%), 'Paraphrasing' 12(66%), and 'Using fillers' 13 (72%). 'Translation' was "never" used by 72% of the respondents. The responses show a greater overall reliance on facilitating and fillers strategies than on translation.

4.2.2 Post assessment Experimental Group Results

For the experimental group, the following table shows the number of responses reporting a given frequency of usage, and the percentage of students that this number represents, after implementation of the strategy training.

CS	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Often		Always		Total
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	
A. Repetition	4	22	6	33	3	17	3	17	2	11	%
B. Repairing	2	11	2	11	4	22	8	44	2	11	%
C. Circumlocution	0	0	0	0	5	28	8	44	5	28	%
D. Message Abandonment	4	22	6	33	5	28	2	11	1	6	%
E. Topic Avoidance	2	11	4	22	5	28	6	33	1	6	%
F. Responding	5	28	6	33	5	28	0	0	2	11	%
G Non-linguistic Strategies	2	11	9	50	3	17	0	0	2	11	%
H. Facilitating	1	6	0	0	1	6	6	33	10	55	%
I. Asking for clarification	1	6	0	0	3	17	6	33	8	44	%
J. Seeking an opinion	0	0	0	0	3	17	9	50	6	33	%
K. Giving assistance	0	0	0	0	5	28	5	28	8	44	%
L. Paraphrasing	0	0	0	0	3	17	6	33	9	50	%
M. Using fillers	1	6	3	17	0	0	6	33	8	44	%
N. Translation	8	44	6	33	2	11	0	0	2	11	%

Table 14: Students' perceptions of their CS usage (Experimental group/ Post-assessment)

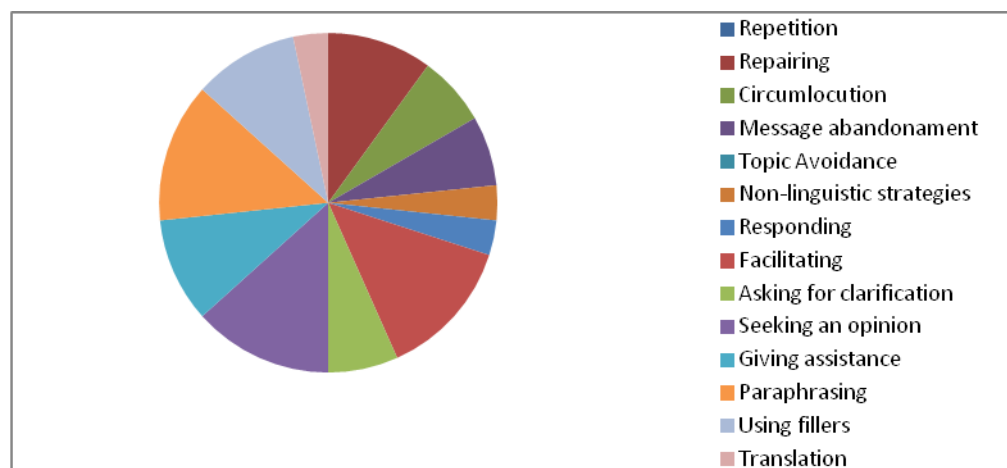


Figure 4.2: Students' perceptions of their CS usage (Experimental group/ Post-assessment)

At this stage, only one strategy, ‘Translation’, was “never” used (by 44% of the participants). The largest response (55%) said that they ‘always’ used ‘Facilitating’. This was followed by strategies such as Non-linguistic Strategy, ‘Seeking an opinion’ and ‘Paraphrasing’ which were used by 50% “rarely”, “often”, and “always” respectively. Eight of the respondents (44%) were found to “often” use ‘Repairing’ and ‘Circumlocution’. Also, the same percentage “always” used ‘Asking for clarification’, ‘Giving assistance’ and ‘Using fillers strategies’. In addition, strategies such as ‘Non-linguistic’, and ‘Seeking an opinion’ were used “rarely” and “often” respectively by 50% of the respondents.

4.2.3 Comparative Summary: Experimental Group before and after CS instruction

Communication Strategies	Frequency			
	Pre-Assessment %	Description	Post-Assessment %	Description
A. Repetition	39	Never	33	Rarely
B. Repairing	33	Never	44	Often
C. Circumlocution	33	Sometimes	44	Often
D. Message Abandonment	39	Sometimes	33	Rarely
E. Topic Avoidance	55	Always	33	Often
F. Non-linguistic strategies	39	Often	33	Rarely
G. Responding	33	Sometimes	50	Rarely
H. Facilitating	77	Always	55	Always
I. Asking for clarification	55	Always	44	Always
J. Seeking an opinion	44	Often	50	Often
K. Giving assistance	50	Always	44	Always
L. Paraphrasing	66	Always	50	Always
M. Using fillers	72	Always	44	Always
N. Translation	72	Never	44	Never

Table 15: Experimental Group: comparative summary of CS usage pre/post-assessments

The table compares the most frequent responses of students' perceptions of their CS usage. A marked pattern of change is difficult to discern, possibly due to the small number of the participants. Nevertheless, some increase can be seen in the use of 'Repairing' from "never" to "often", 'Circumlocution' from "sometimes" to "often" and 'Seeking opinion' from '44' to '50' percent. In addition, perceptions of usage frequency of non-taught strategies, such as 'responding', dropped from "sometimes" to "rarely" and of 'non-linguistic', from "often" to "rarely". Arguably, before the instruction in CSs, students might have relied more on 'Responding' and 'Non-linguistic strategies', because they lacked the linguistic competence needed for using the other strategies.

As expected, after instruction, the experimental group perceived a decreased usage of 'Repetition' and 'Reduction', categories, which include both 'Message abandonment' and 'Topic avoidance', to '33 %', (See 3.5). Their perception of some CS usage such as 'Facilitating', 'Giving assistance', 'Paraphrasing' and 'Fillers strategies' remained stable.

4.2.4 Results of the pre/post- training assessments in the experimental group

To identify the differences between the pre and post mean scores of CS usage, the t-test for related means was applied, and the statistical significance of this difference was evaluated.

Strategies	test	Mean	St. Deviation	t - test	sig
Repetition	Pre test	1.111	1.131	1.207	.244
	Post test	1.6111	1.334		
Repairing	Pre test	1.722	1.487	1.400	.179
	Post test	2.333	1.188		
Circumlocution	Pre test	2.500	1.424	1.410	.177
	Post test	3.000	.766		
Message Abandonment	Pre test	1.611	1.334	.325	.749
	Post test	1.500	1.098		
Topic Avoidance	Pre test	3.388	.849	**4.150	.001
	Post test	2.000	1.137		
Non-linguistic Strategies	Pre test	2.722	1.017	*2.587	.019
	Post test	1.666	1.188		

Responding	Pre test	2.666	.970	**3.298	.004
	Post test	1.333	1.236		
Facilitating	Pre test	3.722	.574	1.511	.149
	Post test	3.333	1.028		
Asking for clarification	Pre test	3.055	1.109	.308	.762
	Post test	3.166	.923		
Seeking an opinion	Pre test	3.166	.985	.000	1.000
	Post test	3.166	.707		
Giving assistance	Pre test	2.166	1.790	*2.224	.040
	Post test	3.222	.808		
Paraphrasing	Pre test	3.333	.907	1.162	.261
	Post test	2.944	1.161		
Using fillers	Pre test	1.055	1.392	1.211	.243
	Post test	1.611	1.613		
Translation	Pre test	3.611	.697	*2.250	.038
	Post test	2.722	1.227		

Table 16: t-tested mean frequencies of responses for experimental group

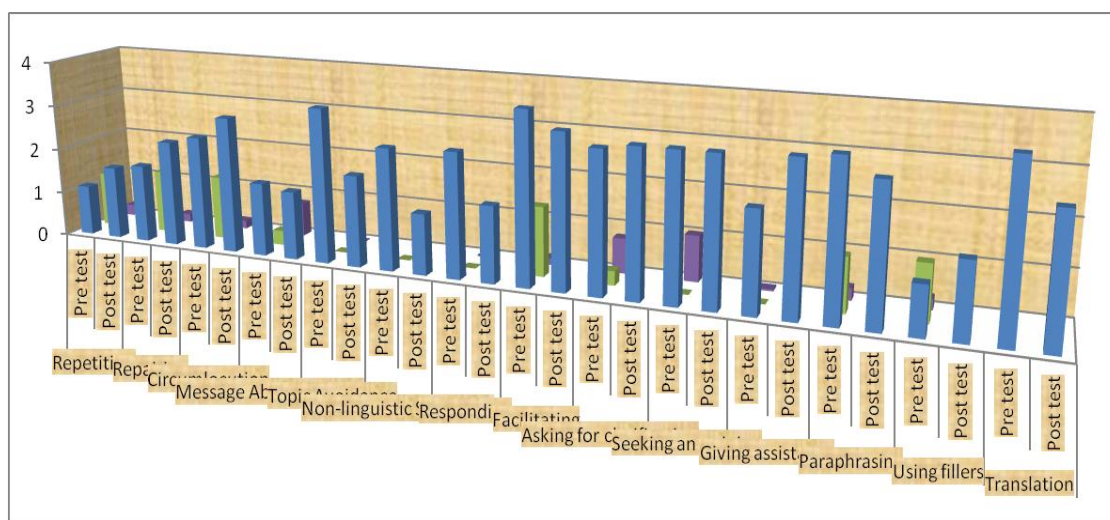


Figure 6: t-tested mean frequencies of responses for experimental group

The results revealed that between before and after training, there were some statistically significant differences in the mean scores of CSs usage in five strategies: ‘Topic Avoidance’; ‘Responding’; ‘Non-linguistic’; ‘Giving assistance’; and ‘Translation’. Students’ mean usage scores in all strategies were higher in the pre-tests,

except in ‘Giving assistance’, where students scored higher in the post assessment (table 14 and figure 4.3 above). Generally speaking, the findings in this table correlate with those of the previous table (table 13), as the reduction in mean value corresponds to the changing students’ perception of CSs usage. For example, perception of the usage of non-taught strategies such as ‘Non-linguistic’ changed from ‘often’ to ‘rarely’, ‘Responding’ from ‘sometimes’ to ‘rarely’ and ‘Translation’ from (72%) to (44%). Conversely, there was a statistically significant increase in perceived mean usage of a single taught response, in the post instruction stage, and less statistically significant, but promising increases in other taught responses. Further research in this area is recommended for more conclusive results on the full range of CSs. Increased learner awareness due to the instruction programme is a probable reason for these differences. These findings seem to agree with the results of previous researchers such as Dörnyei (1995), Sato (2005), Nakatani (2005), Lam (2007), Wood (2010), Tavakoli et al. (2011) and Teng (2012).

4.2.5 Pre-assessment for the control group

CS	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Often		Always		Total
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	
A. Repetition	1	6	0	0	13	72	3	17	1	6	%
B. Repairing	4	22	3	17	7	39	3	17	1	6	%
C. Circumlocution	1	6	0	0	6	33	1	6	10	55	%
D. Message Abandonment	5	28	7	39	2	11	2	11	2	11	%
E. Topic Avoidance	0	0	1	6	4	22	6	33	7	39	%
F. Responding	1	6	3	17	5	33	1	6	8	44	%
G. Non-linguistic Strategies	1	6	2	11	4	22	4	22	7	39	%
H. Facilitating	0	0	1	6	5	33	3	17	9	50	%
I. Asking for clarification	0	0	2	11	3	17	8	44	5	33	%

J. Seeking an opinion	0	0	3	17	5	33	8	44	2	11	%
K. Giving assistance	10	55	2	11	1	6	2	11	3	17	%
L. Paraphrasing	0	0	0	0	5	33	4	22	9	50	%
M. Using fillers	0	0	3	17	3	17	2	11	10	55	%
N. Translation	8	44	4	22	2	11	1	6	3	17	%

Table 17: Control Group: most frequent perception of CS usage (Pre-assessment)

The greatest response was the 72% of respondents who “sometimes” used ‘Repetition’. The following strategies were “always” used by the respondents: ‘Circumlocution’ and ‘Using Fillers’ by 55%, and ‘Paraphrasing’ and ‘Facilitating’ by 50%. ‘Translation’ and ‘Giving assistance’ were “never” used by 44% and 55% respectively.

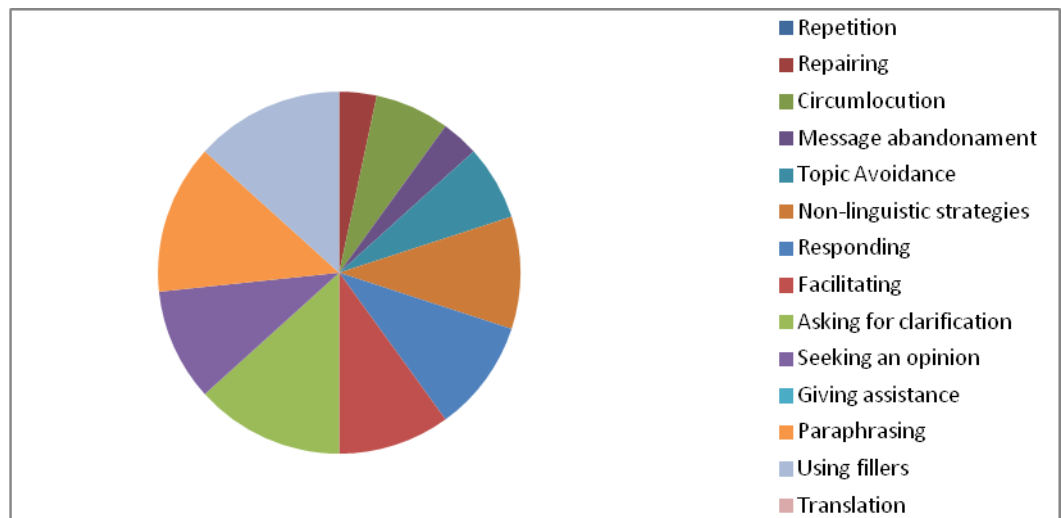


Figure 7: Control Group: most frequent perception of CS usage (Pre-assessment)

4.2.6 Post-assessment for the control group

CS	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Often		Always		Total
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	
A. Repetition	0	0	4	22	4	22	4	22	6	33	%
B. Repairing	3	17	1	6	7	39	4	22	3	17	%
C. Circumlocution	2	11	1	6	4	22	2	11	9	50	%
D. Message Abandonment	3	17	3	17	6	33	2	11	4	22	%
E. Topic Avoidance	0	0	3	17	5	28	6	33	4	22	%
F. Responding	4	22	2	11	4	22	6	33	2	11	%
G Non-linguistic Strategies	0	0	0	0	4	22	6	33	8	44	%
H. Facilitating	1	6	2	11	2	11	6	33	7	39	%
I. Asking for clarification	2	11	2	11	7	39	2	11	5	28	%
J. Seeking an opinion	1	6	4	22	7	39	4	22	2	11	%
K. Giving assistance	4	22	5	28	1	6	2	11	6	33	%
L. Paraphrasing	0	0	3	17	2	11	5	28	8	44	%
M. Using fillers	0	0	4	22	4	22	3	17	7	39	%
N. Translation	6	33	5	28	1	6	2	11	4	22	%

Table 18: Control Group: most frequent perception of students' CS usage (Post-assessment)

Seven strategies were “always” used in the post-assessment: ‘Repetition’ (33%); ‘Circumlocution’ (50%); ‘Non-linguistic Strategy’ (44%); ‘Facilitating’ (39%); ‘Giving Assistance’ (33%); ‘Paraphrasing’ (44%); and ‘Using Fillers’ (39%). Four strategies were “sometimes” used, namely ‘Repairing’ (39%), ‘Message Adornment’ (33%), ‘Asking for Clarification’ (39%) and ‘Seeking an opinion’ (39%). Only ‘Translation’ was “never” used by 33% of the participants.

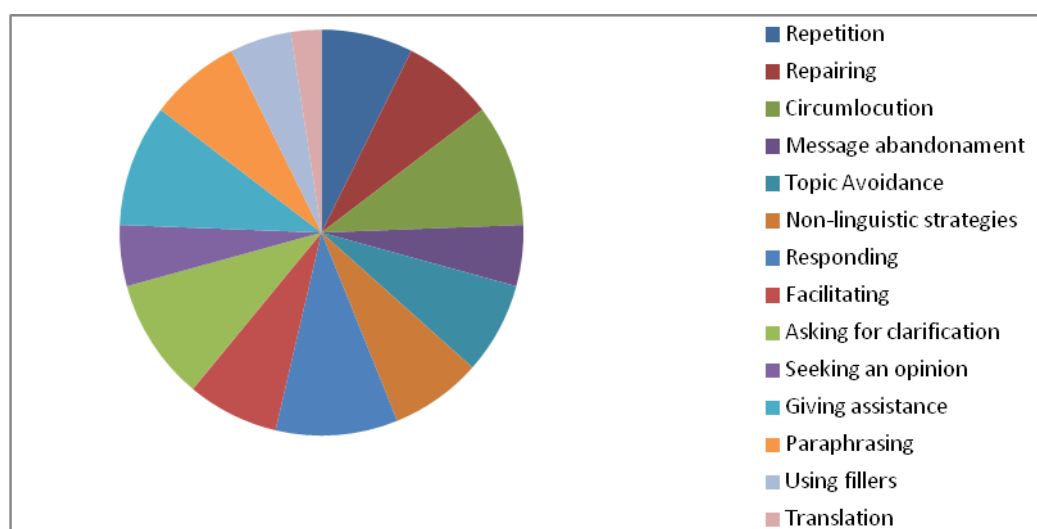


Figure 8: Control Group: most frequent perception of CS usage (Post-assessment)

4.2.7 Comparative Summary of differences in Students' perceived CS usage

Communication Strategies	Frequency			
	Pre-Assessment %	Description	Post-Assessment %	Description
A. Repetition	72	Sometimes	33	Always
B. Repairing	39	Sometimes	39	Sometimes
C. Circumlocution	55	Always	50	Always
D. Message Abandonment	39	Rarely	33	Sometimes
E. Topic Avoidance	39	Always	33	Often
F. Non-linguistic strategies	44	Always	33	Often
G. Responding	39	Always	44	Always
H. Facilitating	50	Always	39	Always
I. Asking for clarification	44	Often	39	Sometimes
J. Seeking an opinion	44	Often	39	Sometimes
K. Giving assistance	55	Never	33	Always
L. Paraphrasing	50	Always	44	Always

M. Using fillers	55	Always	39	Always
N. Translation	44	Never	33	Never

Table 19: Control Group: comparison of most frequent perception of CS usage (Post-assessment)

As can be seen, the students reported a change in the profile of their usage of CSs. The frequency of ‘Repetition’ changed from “sometimes” to “always”, and ‘Message Abandonment’ moved from “rarely” to “sometimes”. ‘Giving Assistance’ dramatically changed from “never” to “always”. On the other hand, ‘Non-linguistic’ declined from “always” to “often”. The reported usage profile of several CSs remained unchanged: ‘Repairing’; ‘Circumlocution’; ‘Facilitating’; ‘Paraphrasing’; ‘Using Fillers’; and ‘Translation’.

4.2.8 Comparison of Results of the pre and post assessment (control group)

Strategies	test	Mean	Std Deviation	t - test	sig
Repetition	Pre test	.685	.161	1.584	.132
	Post test	1.200	.282		
Repairing	Pre test	1.195	.281	1.458	.163
	Post test	1.319	.311		
Circumlocution	Pre test	1.182	.278	.121	.905
	Post test	1.258	.296		
Message Abandonment	Pre test	1.274	.300	1.571	.135
	Post test	1.231	.290		
Topic Avoidance	Pre test	2.607	.614	1.226	.237
	Post test	.985	.232		
Non-linguistic Strategies	Pre test	1.243	.293	1.054	.307
	Post test	1.294	.305		
Responding	Pre test	1.289	.303	*2.024	.042
	Post test	.937	.220		
Facilitating	Pre test	1.109	.261	.275	.786
	Post test	1.248	.294		
Asking for clarification	Pre test	1.043	.245	1.638	.120
	Post test	1.328	.313		
Seeking an opinion	Pre test	1.533	.361	*2.465	.025
	Post test	1.078	.254		

Giving assistance	Pre test	1.617	.381	.959	.351
	Post test	1.711	.403		
Paraphrasing	Pre test	2.645	.623	1.334	.200
	Post test	1.161	.273		
Using fillers	Pre test	1.392	.328	1211	.243
	Post test	1. 613	.380		
translation	Pre test	1.437	.338	.122	.904
	Post test	1.227	.289		

Table 20: Comparison of most frequent perception of CS usage (control/experimental groups)

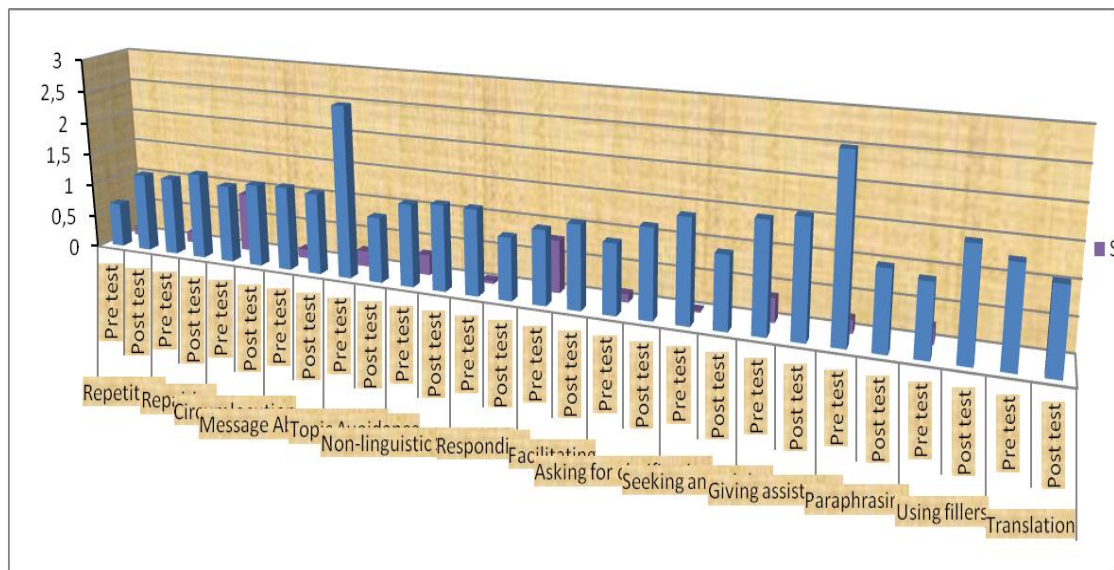


Figure 9: pre and post assessment in first seven communication strategies for the control group

To check the statistical validity of the differences between the pre and post mean scores of the control group's CS usage, a t-test for related means was applied. The results revealed that there were statistically significant differences in the mean scores in only two strategies, 'Responding', and 'Seeking an opinion'. Students' mean scores were higher in the pre-tests in these strategies (table 18 and figure 7). Their reliance on such strategies in this early stage might be attributed to a lack of target language, or a lack confidence and fear of making mistakes. Shihiba (2011) observed this problem of productive skills in Libyan students (See chapter one 1.2).

4.2.9 The independent mean scores of the pre/post-assessments

Following the method suggested by Dörnyei (2012), a numerical value was assigned to each potential choice: always (4); often (3); sometimes (2); rarely (1); and never (0). A standard calculation of independent mean values and associated factors of significance was made, using the SPSS software.

Strategies	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test sig
Repetition	Experimental	18	1.1111	1.13183	**2.849
	Control	18	2.0000	.68599	.007
Repairing	Experimental	18	1.7222	1.48742	.247
	Control	18	1.6111	1.19503	.806
Circumlocution	Experimental	18	2.5000	1.42457	1.400
	Control	18	3.1111	1.18266	.170
Message Abandonment	Experimental	18	1.6111	1.33456	.766
	Control	18	1.2778	1.27443	.449
Topic Avoidance	Experimental	18	3.3889	.84984	.172
	Control	18	3.2778	2.60781	.865
Responding	Experimental	18	2.6667	.97014	.149
	Control	18	2.6111	1.24328	.882
Non-linguistic Strategies	Experimental	18	2.7222	1.01782	.861
	Control	18	2.3889	1.28973	.395
Facilitating	Experimental	18	3.7222	.57451	*2.640
	Control	18	2.9444	1.10997	.012
Asking for clarification	Experimental	18	3.0556	1.10997	.619
	Control	18	2.8333	1.04319	.540
Seeking an opinion	Experimental	18	3.1667	.98518	.388
	Control	18	3.0000	1.53393	.701
Giving assistance	Experimental	18	2.1667	1.79050	1.172
	Control	18	1.5000	1.61791	.249
Paraphrasing	Experimental	18	3.3333	.90749	.927
	Control	18	3.9444	2.64513	.360
Using filler	Experimental	18	.6111	.97853	1.108
	Control		1.0556	1.39209	.276
Translation	Experimental	18	3.6111	.69780	*2.213
	Control	18	2.7778	1.43714	.034

Table 21: t-tested independent mean frequency of use comparison- experimental & control groups (Pre-assessment)

Before teaching the two groups, some statistically reliable differences were seen in the reported use of three strategies, namely ‘Repetition’, ‘Facilitating’, and ‘Translation’. The control group members' mean score (2.00) was higher than that of the experimental group (1.11) in ‘Repetition’, but the experimental group members' mean scores of both the ‘Facilitating’, and ‘Translation’ strategies were higher than those of the control group members. The experimental group members evidently used these two strategies more often than the control group members.

After the intervention, there were also significant differences in the mean scores of use of the CSs, in seven strategies. These were ‘Repetition’, ‘Non-linguistic’, ‘Asking for clarification’, ‘Seeking an opinion’, ‘Giving assistance’, ‘Translation’, and ‘Using Fillers’. The control group members' mean scores were higher than those of the experimental group on ‘Repetition, Non-linguistic Strategy’, and ‘Translation’ (those strategies requiring less linguistic competence), while the experimental group members mean scores were higher on the remaining four strategies.

Strategies	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test sig
Repetition	Experimental	18	1.6111	1.33456	*2.101
	Control	18	2.5000	1.20049	.043
Repairing	Experimental	18	2.3333	1.18818	.133
	Control	18	2.2778	1.31978	.895
Circumlocution	Experimental	18	3.0000	.76696	.160
	Control	18	3.0556	1.25895	.874
Message Abandonment	Experimental	18	1.5000	1.09813	1.000
	Control	18	1.8889	1.23140	.324
Topic Avoidance	Experimental	18	2.0000	1.13759	1.410
	Control	18	2.5000	.98518	.168
Responding	Experimental	18	1.3333	1.23669	1.975
	Control	18	2.1667	1.29479	.056
Non-linguistic Strategies	Experimental	18	1.6667	1.18818	**3.893
	Control	18	3.0556	.93760	.000
Facilitating	Experimental	18	3.3333	1.02899	1.311
	Control	18	2.8333	1.24853	.199

Asking for clarification	Experimental	18	3.1667	.92355	*2.185
	Control	18	2.3333	1.32842	.036
Seeking an opinion	Experimental	18	3.1667	.70711	**3.472
	Control	18	2.1111	1.07861	.001
Giving assistance	Experimental	18	3.2222	.80845	**2.989
	Control	18	1.8889	1.71117	.005
Paraphrasing	Experimental	18	3.3889	.69780	1.391
	Control	18	2.9444	1.16175	.444
Using fillers	Experimental	18	2.9444	1.30484	**2.726
	Control	18	1.6111	1.61387	.010
Translation	Experimental	18	1.1111	1.32349	**3.787
	Control	18	2.7222	1.22741	.001

Table 22: t-tested independent mean frequencies of use comparison Experimental & control groups (Post-assessment)

4.2.10. The acquisition of CSs by learners in the two groups after instruction

Questionnaires data in this study indicate that the different types of CSs were acquired in varying degrees by language learners in the English department in Misurata University. The acquisition of some CSs was statistically more significant than that of others (See the tables below).

Significant CS acquisitions	Less significant CS acquisitions
Fillers	Repetition
Asking for clarification	Message Abandonment
Seeking an opinion	Responding
Giving assistance	Non-linguistic Strategies
	Translation Strategies

Table 23: CSs employed by the experimental group after the instruction

Significant CS acquisitions	Less significant CS acquisitions
Repetition Non-linguistic Strategies Translation Strategies	Giving assistance Fillers

Table 24: CSs employed by the control group after the instruction

As table 23 above shows, it seems that, of 14 CSs examined, students in the experimental group acquired fillers, asking for clarification, seeking an opinion and giving assistance more than other strategies. In contrast, students in the control group acquired repetition, non-linguistic strategies and translation strategies more significantly than others. Although the teaching of CSs helped English language learners to acquire some important CS for communicating in the TL, it seems that teaching a large number of strategies within a period of three months ‘semester’ may have lessened the measurable impact on usage of specific CSs. Therefore, further studies should investigate an optimum number of CSs to teach to maximise learners’ outcomes.

4.2.11 Summary

In response to research question 1, the findings suggest that teaching CSs appears to increase not only the use of these taught strategies, but also students’ awareness and tendency to use other CSs. The findings showed that after the 12-week training programme there was, to some extent, a significant relationship between the teaching of CSs and their subsequent use. A significant statistical increase was found in the use of some CSs in the experimental group post-training assessment, which included ‘Asking for clarification’, ‘Seeking an opinion’, ‘Giving assistance’ and ‘Using fillers’. The experimental group also used ‘Repairing’, ‘Facilitating’ and ‘Paraphrasing’ strategies more than learners in the control group. Therefore, it is reasonable to believe

that the teaching of CSs encouraged language learners to use them in their conversation and to have a wider range of strategies to deploy in different communicative contexts.

The findings also showed an increase in the use of non-taught strategies, 'Non-linguistic' and 'Translation' (Table 22) in the control group. These non-taught strategies are a last resort when students lack the lexical resources to use other CSs to maintain their conversation. Conversely, the data revealed that learners of the experimental group decreased their use of non-taught strategies which include 'Responding', 'Non-linguistic' and 'Translation' after the 12-week instruction (See tables 13, 14 and 24 above). This suggests that that instruction in the use of CSs had a measurable impact. It should be noted that, a questionnaire yielded a general picture of learners' self-perceptions about their general frequency of CSs usage (quantitative data), not their actual strategic usage. Therefore, the students' actual usage of CSs in speaking tasks and the impact of strategy training of increasing these strategies while speaking are examined qualitatively in the next section.

Section 4.3

4.3 Results of the speaking tasks

The changes in use of CSs in the performance of communicative tasks are investigated in this section, to address question 1: Does the explicit training in a specific CS result in increasing usage by learners?

Cohen et.al (1996) claimed that the implementation of various speaking tasks is a useful instrument for eliciting learners' actual use of CSs while speaking. Thus, the impact of strategy training on learners' actual use of CSs is the main focus. In the process, four speaking tasks were given before and after the intervention, to examine whether the teaching of CSs would lead to their greater usage.

Speaking tasks analysis

The researcher transcribed and coded the data from the learners' performance in the speaking tasks. The 'group discussions' were conducted during regular class hours in the both the experimental and control groups. The tasks involved four groups of four or five students, whose performance was observed, analysed, and compared before and after the intervention.

4.3.1 The pre-training task performance of the experimental group

The conversation among five randomly selected students in the experimental group lasted for approximately 14 minutes. Without interference from the teacher, the students freely talked about their experience during the Libyan uprising. Generally, the topic was considered appropriate, as each participant had experiences to share. The fact that the conversation lasted for such a long time was a clear indication of the interest and involvement of the students. However, their difficulties in constructing sentence structures correctly were very evident, as were their difficulties in conveying meaning. Moreover, there was a minimal usage of repairing as a strategy to correct grammatical and lexical errors.

The use of specific CSs was also observed. It was very evident that when the participants needed time to think, they used fillers such as “um”, “ah” and ‘er’. In addition, they used follow up questions in order to facilitate the conversation e.g. “how did you feel when?”. Once in a while, non-verbal strategies such as nodding and leaning towards the speaker encouraged continuity of the discourse.

The researcher adopted Thornbury’s transcription method in coding and analysing extracts from the discussions and interview data (cf. Thornbury, 2007). The following codes were used to transcribe the conversations:

= Interruption. | Gesture/body language. # Pause. ^ Fillers. * Repetition. « Responding. © Circumlocution. Ĩ paraphrasing. Ø Translation. ß Repairing. Æ Clarification. ± Giving assistance. × Seeking opinion. ¥ Reduction strategy. ∞ Facilitating.

For example this symbol ^ that means a speaker is using filler strategy and e.g. ± or × means that a speaker used a seeking opinion or giving assistance strategy.

Extract: 1

*C: For me I live in an area is called Aramla, so safe area it’s closed to the sea, but ^ah *I...I...feel sometimes it’s the farthest to the ^ah...where the war came. ^Ah, but for a while we stayed at my aunt’s home because..#*

A: ±It’s safe...

C: «Yes, it is. My grandmother was so afraid ^ah...for my father because he is her only son. She was not going to let any harm gets him and although Aramla is a safe place ^um...we don’t have ^ah...I’m not going to say it |. We have neighbours but it’s not like my aunt where my aunt is ^um...

A: ß Social.

In the above extract, student A gave assistance, when the speaker seemed to forget what to say when Student C said “..we stayed at my aunt’s house because..”. In addition, at one point in the conversation, Student A utilized repairing strategy, when she said “strong” to correct Student C, after the latter had said “My relationship with

my father is strength at this time” (See Appendix P for more details). It should be noted that learners in the pre-training speaking task attempted to employ repairing strategies, but they did not use appropriate phrases such as ‘Sorry, I think you need to say’ or ‘I meant to say’, when using it.

Student B was slightly reluctant to share her experience. For most of the conversation, she was just listening to the other students. It was observed that she only started talking when another student directly asked her about her experience. As shown below, sometimes she would stop in the middle of a statement, because she was too emotional to talk about it. This may be related to her bad experience during the Libyan conflict, or because she was not confident enough to communicate in the L2/LF.

Extract: 2

C: *Yes, you know a lot of times there were people coming to my house ah to our house and they ah asked for money, people that they don't even know each other. You know, this feeling was very great...*

B: *Yes, in the revolution, people um feel each other ah they asked you if you want something#.*

Throughout the pre-task conversation, Student C was the most active participant. In fact, her follow-up questions and additional details sustained the conversation. In the following extract (3), she employed repetition strategy, to correct her grammatical mistakes i.e. ‘*I see him I saw him*’. In general, learners in this group realised their grammatical mistakes and corrected them, but they made more mistakes in the pre-intervention task (See Appendix P for more details).

Extract: 3

C: *I mean my relationship with my dad was tightened because I remember that I went downstairs I ah I see him I saw him I saw him watching the people ah so I watched with him. He will tell me he would tell me about the bad day, about his past=.*

A: *Do you mean about the ruler in the past?*

The extract below also shows Student C giving assistance to Student D. When the latter needed time to complete her statement ‘*many of the people um*’, Student C completed it by saying ‘*That you love*’. However, in general, learners used a giving

assistance strategy less frequently in the pre than post intervention task. A likely explanation is that learners might have been unfamiliar with this strategy before the instruction of CSs.

Extract: 4

D: ∞Really, they were good days because we discovered many things ^ah good things ^ah that Libyan people ^um have and ^um bad days because we lost many *many of the people ^um

C: ±That you love!

D: Not ^um, ¥ I do not know them.

C: Ok, Æ so those people who died in the war ℓ.

D: ^Um, yes ℓ.

In extract 5, Student D employed clarification strategy by asking questions of the other participants, such as “Where did you move?” and “Did you move to another place?”. The pre-training speaking task revealed that some learners were able to use a clarification request strategy without having had instruction in it. In addition, many students, like student E in the last extract, could and did attempt to respond to questions, but could not finish the sentences they had started, probably due to a lack of linguistic resources in the target language.

Extract: 5

D: ∞During the revolution, Æ did you travel to Benghazi?

E: No, me ^ah, but my aunt and uncle ^ah the family ^ah#

C: ×Not you?

E: Not me ^ah... I live by the sea ^ah ℓ... **

D: Then, Æ where did you move? Or ^ah Æ did you return to your house?

E: «No, because very difficult to return to the house ^ah the rocket ^ah..

D: Æ Did you move to another place? Æ Did you stay in ^ah...the same place?

E: «Yes, ^ah the ^ah... Zaroug... (See the whole conversation in Appendix x).

Overall, students in this particular group used approximately 1320 words. Though the participants may have been unaware of the existence of some CSs, they were still able to use fillers 122 times, facilitating 15, seeking opinion 16, asking for clarification 10, responding 10 repetition 12, reduction strategies 5, repairing 4 and giving assistance 4 times. It was also observed that members in this group employed non-linguistic strategies (body language) 19 times. Nevertheless, as previously mentioned, the use of appropriate lexis to implement the CSs was limited, probably because of lack of instruction (See table 26 in 4.5).

4.3.2 The pre-training task performance of the control group

Generally speaking, students in this group also used specific strategies, such as fillers, whenever time is needed. They also asked questions to facilitate the conversation, and to clarify issues. For example, Malak, who initiated the conversation and dominated the exchanges, used a facilitating strategy on different occasions. (*I will ah start with Wejdan to talk about her experience*'' and '*I will ask you if ah..?*''). She also employed an information seeking strategy when she asked Fatima '*in which month your brother was injured?*'' (See extract 6 below).

Extract: 6

Malak: ^Well, I will ask Fatima if ^ah you want to add anything[∞].

Fatima: ^Well, I will talk about my brother, he ^ah was^ ah fighting in Dafniah yeah, ^ah he was injured in his arm and in his leg then he travelled to Tunisia.

Malak: ×In which month your bother was injured?

Fatima: ×I can't ^ah remember, ¥I don't know, but he ^ah he injured in Al-Dafniya umm.

Asma: «Like my father º.

In addition, Malak utilized clarification request strategies, as when she asked:

Extract: 7

Malak: OK, Æ did you leave home during the war or ah?

Fatima: «No, we stayed in our area, it is safe place.

As in extract (6), she used fillers in parts of the conversation where she was most likely to ‘gain the floor’ and to carry on in her conversation, such as ‘*my uncle was injured in the war and ah he*’, ‘*I remember in the ah war ah I was preparing many things*’ and ‘*ah my uncle was ah injured in his leg and in his ah*’ (See Appendix P for more details).

In the case of Wejdan, there were evident difficulties with sentence structure, so she used fillers and repetition very often, to have time to complete her conversation. This is an example of the link between lack of linguistic competence and the use of these CSs. (See extract below).

Extract: 8

Malak: ...∞I will ah start with Wejdan to talk about her experience in the ^ah war.

*Wejdan: ∥ Ok, ^um I will talk about my experience. It stated when ^ah my father run away from Sirt in ^ah the 19th of February. He was working with Gaddfi army, he came home I remember very *very afraid he ^ah ^ah he ask us *he asked us to not open the door because umm he was thinking that the army will be come and catch us...But, he didn't go ^um he stay with the rebels and fight with them, then he ^um... #*

Asma: ± Injured.

Wejdan: «Yeah∥, he injured in ^ah Dafniya..

In extract 8, repairing strategy is also evident, when Wejdan corrected herself: ‘*..he ask us he asked us*’.

Fatima, was an active student who, as seen in extract 6, employed strategies such as asking opinion i.e. ‘*I can't ah remember, I don't know, but.*’. In addition, in extract 9 below, she employed clarification, facilitating, and asking opinion, when asking Malak a direct question.

Extract: 9

Fatima: ×What about ah your feeling?

*Malak: ^Yeah, sometimes I was very afraid about ^ah the people. Sometimes I cry ∥....
=.*

Fatima: Æ Who died?

Malak: ^Yeah, my uncle was injured =.

Fatima: ∞Even my uncle got injured in the war.

Here, the student also utilized a repetition strategy: ‘*Whatever I said I know that whatever I said about*’ and ‘*.I don’t have enough experience...ah much experience*’ (See Appendix P).

Rabab’ah (2013) observes that learners sometimes resort to strategies such as repetition or translation to make themselves understood, as in the extract below:

Extract: 10

Malak: ∞I’ll ask you if ah during the war if you prepared anything for the.. ^ah

Hala: «Rebels.

Malak: ^Yeah.

Fatima: ^Yes, ^ah sometimes my brother asked us to cook food for his ^ah friends ^yeah in his Ø Katiba especially in ^ah in Ramadan ‡.

Hala: Æ I will ask you, in which Ø Katiba your brother is?

Fatima: Ø Fursan Misurata.

The word ‘*Katiba*’ is Arabic word which means brigade and ‘*Fursan*’ is a noun meaning knights. In the extract above, Hala employed ‘language switch strategy’ unconsciously. Ting and Phan (2008) observed that students sometimes use an item from their L1 i.e. ‘language switch strategy’ in the L2 without modification. Here again, the use of a language switch or translation strategy is probably due to the lack of knowledge of the target language identified by Rabab’ah (2013).

Although in this extract Asma and Hala spoke less than the other participants in this group, they attempted to assist other speakers and facilitate the conversation. This happens, for instance, when Malak spoke about her uncle and said:

Extract: 11

Malak: ^Yeah, ^ ah my uncle was ^ah injured in his leg and in his ^ah.. #

Hala: ±In his arm.

Asma and Hala used a clarification request and a repairing strategy respectively in the extract below:

Extract: 12

Asma: How did he travel to Tunisia? Æ Did he travel by sea in a small ship or..?

Wejdan: «No, he travelled ^ah...=.

Hala: In difficult circumstances l, still the army, ßI mean that difficult..

Wejdan: ^Yeah, still the army in the ^ah city and they ^ah fight us.

Overall, the conversation in this group took about nine minutes. The number of words used by the participants was 1240. The strategies of fillers were used 66 times, repetition 4, facilitating 4, clarification 4, seeking opinion 4, repairing strategy 4, giving assistance 3 translation 2 and non-linguistic strategies 23 times (See table 27 in 4.5). It was also observed that participants in this group employed body language to encourage the continuity of the conversation. However, difficulties in sentence structure affected the whole conversation (See Appendix P). It appeared that students in this group were not aware of their use of CSs.

4.3.3 The post-training task performance of the experimental group

This section presents examples of the types of CSs used by learners after the training programme, in the following extracts:

Extract: 13

A: ...∞do you have any thoughts on tourism?...^um ∞ I wonder if you could tell me about any special place that you can advise me to take her to?

B: May be he wants to start with ^um=

A: ß She is, ±she is a female (See the other extracts below).

In this extract, Student A led the conversation, and facilitated it more than once, to encourage other students to participate, using phrases such as “Do you have any thoughts on..? ”, and “I wonder if you could tell me about..”.

In extract (14) below, fillers, such as *'I'll tell you what?'*, *'you know'*, *'how shall I put it'*, *'as a matter of fact'* and *'in fact'* are evident.

Extract: 14

A: *^I'll tell you what, remember girls that I want to show her something unique.*

D: *^Yeah.*

B: *^Well, she can visit different buildings and different shops.*

In the extract above, the effect of the training programme can be seen, as the student used not only short forms of pause fillers or one-word phrases e.g. 'ah' and 'um', but also longer expressions, such as *'I'll tell you what'*, *'how shall I put it'* and *'as a matter of fact'*, to gain time to think in the L2. It is worth pointing out that although learners used more 'pause fillers' strategies before than after instruction, it seemed that some learners 'slipped' these strategies and did not actually use them when communicating in the target language (Malasit and Sarobol, 2013, p 812).

The extract below show Student A using both reduction and clarification strategies.

Extract: 15

C: *× As a campaign or something.*

A: *¥I am not sure about it l.*

E: *«But, I think it is better to walk a long, and interesting of quiet walking.*

A: *Æ I'm afraid I don't understand. Æ What do you mean by that? Æ Can you clarify..=.*

Moreover, this student used a repairing strategy when she corrected grammatical mistakes such as *'She is, she is a female'* and *'five years ah five months'*, as well as an assistance strategy. When student B says *'and maybe, um, she can, um taste our popular, um'*, Student A supplies the assistance *'dishes, you mean!'* (See Appendix P for more details).

Student B uses examples of an assisting strategy and topic avoidance in Extract 16 and 17 below.

Extract: 16

B: ‖ *May be he wants to start with ^um =*

A: *She is, she is a female.*

B: *Oh, maybe she wants to start with shopping, *to go shopping. ×What's your opinion?*

A: *May be.*

B: *To see our shops.*

C: *^As a matter of fact, if she is a girl, of course she wants to go shopping.*

A: *Yes.*

D: *^interesting.*

A: *^Yeah*

C: *There are many shops here.*

B: *^Um, I think it is different from their shops, the material, and everything.*

A: *^You know, ^how shall I put it ^ah I want to show her something unique.*

Extract: 17

B: *^Um, and ±I personally think that the best interesting and the best beautiful city is Cyrene.*

E: *Yes, I agree with you.*

B: *And maybe, ^um, she can, ^um taste our popular, ^um*

A: *Dishes, ∞is that right?*

B: *Food, oh!*

A: *Cyrene, ×where is it specifically?*

B: *¥I don't know!*

In the extract below, Student B attempted to facilitate the conversation and assist Student A, by supplying a translation for the Arabic proper noun 'Soaq Althalath'. This facilitating reflects the impact of instruction on students' strategic awareness. The use of pause fillers for example, in extracts 16 and 18 by Student C i.e. '*as a matter of fact*'

and “*actually*”, also reflects the training they received in this area. This use of such pause fillers is observed in studies such as Dörnyei (1995) and Nakatani (2005).

Extract: 18

A: *‘Soaq Althalath’.*

C: *^Yeah.*

B: *Tuesday Market ±.*

C: *It’s very popular. ^Actually, many people go there.*

In the extract below, Student C used an expression, ‘campaign’, which seemed to cause confusion to the listener, causing Student A to use a reduction strategy ‘killer’ when she replied to her.

Extract: 19

B: *^Well, she can visit different buildings and different shops l.*

C: *Even the south of Libya, there is great places to visit, ±what do you think?*

E: *Every place in Libya ah is beautiful.*

C: *You can go with a..=*

D: *In group.*

C: *With a group not alone.*

D: *^Yeah, not by herself.*

C: *As a campaign or something.*

A: *¥I am not sure about it.*

The conversation below shows circumlocution and seeking opinion respectively i.e. “*it’s a kind of ah*” and “*I can’t remember its name*”.

Extract: 20

A: *^In fact, she told me that she wants to go to ‘Bab Alaziziah’.*

D: *In Tripoli, ugly place.*

A: *She wants to see it, but I’m thinking about taking her to Cyrene and to the mountains.*

D: «I think it is not ok to go there because the place is really dirty and there is a lot of mess there.

C: There is especially shop, I don't ^um ×I can't.. =,

D: ±Remember

C: ×I can't remember its name, in Tripoli, ©it's a kind of Ĩ ^ah shopping thing, It opens every Tuesday.

This use of circumlocution strategy is examined by (Tarone and Yule, 1989, p 112). Researcher such as Willems (1987) and Dörnyei (1995) considered circumlocution strategy as one of the most used achievement strategies, but learners in this group hardly used the strategy in the context of this conversation, possibly due to the nature of the discourse.

The utterance 'it's a kind of' can be considered as either circumlocution or paraphrasing strategies (cf. Dörnyei and Thurrell, 1991).

Extract: 21

A: You know, how shall I put it ah I want to show her something unique, Ĩ something which she cannot find in Australia.

D: Yes

A: Something she can remember when she goes back.

A: That's great! Yes, interesting!

D: You can also, ^um take her to 'Leptis Magna' there is um an ancient building..

A: That's great! Yes, ∞ interesting!

D: So, it'll be very unique.

B: Maybe, she likes to take photos to um remember this, ^um and..

A: «Yes, of course, she will take a camera with her.

C: To show these photos to her parents or partner.

D: Maybe, ^ah he can, β she can encourage them to visit Libya.

A: «Yes, we'll get tourists; we'll get a lot of tourism.

E: ∞Well, what about ^ah, Nafosa Mount.

D: β Mountains

E: ‖ Yes, mountains, in the west, there is, β are many of them, beautiful places.

A: ∞Really?

D: Yes, sure.

E: And, ^um, there are # many of ^um ×what's the word..? =

B: ±Places, Æ do you mean that?

E: Places, yes.

D: They are really beautiful that she can't ^um..

C: ±Count them, do you mean that? ^Actually, there are many places.

In the above extract, learners quite clearly used facilitating strategies: “ *Well, what about ah, Nafosa Mount*” and “*really?*”. Speaker D evidently used repairing strategy to correct Speaker E, by replying “*Mountain*”. The usage of phrases taught in class for the ‘seeking opinion’ strategy by interlocutor C is clear evidence of the effect of teaching.

The above transcript equally shows the usage of self-correction ‘repairing strategy’: “*ah he can, she can encourage them*”; “*there is, are many of them*”. Clarification and assistance strategies taught in class are also evident in the exchanges: “*Oh, do you mean...*”, “*she walks on the beach*” and “*They are really beautiful that she can't umm 'Count them... do you mean that'*”).

In summary, this post intervention conversation lasted for approximately seven minutes. Participants used 792 words, manifesting a number of CSs, such as fillers (39 times), clarification (9), giving assistance (7), seeking opinion (7), facilitating (5), repairing (5), repetition and responding (4) paraphrasing (3), reduction strategies (2), circumlocution (1) and non-linguistic (8). Usage of some CSs such as fillers, facilitating, seeking opinion, and clarification were at about 50% of the pre intervention levels. This is probably due to their increased vocabulary, which was reflected in a conversation where learners almost doubled the number of words which they produced. The increased vocabulary used to implement the CSs is a direct result of the teaching intervention.

Interestingly, the results showed that the members of the experimental group outperformed those in the control group in speaking tasks, particularly after the instruction (See the next section 4.3.4). In addition, the post-training speaking task analysis showed that learners in the experimental group managed not only to implement the taught strategies, but also to generate their own appropriate expressions in conversation such as ‘*I meant to say*’, ‘*I personally think that*’ and ‘*As a matter of fact*’ (See Appendix P). Furthermore, the post-training data suggested that learners in this group were more confident than in the pre-training speaking task and more aware of the use of CSs, using almost all the communicative strategies (See table 28 in 4.5).

4.3.4 The post-task performance of the control group

Four learners in this group participated in the post-training speaking task activity. They spoke for only 2 minutes, 31 seconds and used only 250 words. Only a limited number of CSs were used by them (See table 29 in 4.5).

Extract: 23

S1: Fine, I am a visitor here, but ^actually I am so said because I did not have time to see the Libyan success. × Can you talk about it?

S2: Yes, I can help you ℓ. Firstly, welcome to you here ^um I know many places ^ah in Libya for tourism ^ah like Sabrata... =.

S3: ℓ Also, in Tripoli ^ah there is a nice hotels like ^ah ‘Almahari’ and hotel ‘seven Moon’.

S1: ^Actually, I hope to visit it.

S3: In Tripoli or somewhere else?

S1: ^Actually, I wish to visit..

The conversation above shows mainly one-word fillers such as ‘ah’, and ‘um’, used repeatedly. The one-word fillers were predominant, possibly because they were easy to remember. A seeking opinion strategy was also present.

Extract: 24

S4: Thank you. ^Actually, we can talk about Misurata!

S1: Yes, the most important, I heard a lot about Misurata.

S4: Yes, Misurata ^ah near Tripoli and ^ah have ^ah nice places..

S1: ^Um ^ha ʌ.

*S4: And you can ^ah do some shopping for example, ^ah street in the *street 'Abdulla Alghareeb'.*

S1: Yes, thank you so much ʌ.

In the above extract, in addition to repetition strategy, there was an attempt to utilise a clarification request strategy, when speaker 3 said, *'In Tripoli or somewhere else?'*. Also, the participants used body language such as smiling and nodding, to signal interest.

In the post-speaking task, learners in the control group used fewer strategies than the experimental group. They also used fewer strategies than in their own pre-intervention task. A potential reason for this could be the short length of the conversation they had, which itself may have been caused by the inappropriate expressions that they employed.

4.3.5 Summary

These speaking tasks were used to investigate research question 1, which was about the impact of CSs training on increasing the usage of these strategies and to gauge the development in learners' performance while speaking English. In the pre-training speaking tasks, students in both the control and experimental groups used pause fillers, clarification strategy and translation 'language switch' CSs, without having had instruction in their usage. However, after instruction, the experimental group became more confident and used a wider range of expressions, such as *'as a matter of fact'*, *'I meant to say'*, *'it's a kind of ah'*, *'Interesting'*, *"Oh, do you mean...?"* and *'what's the word'*.

After intervention, the experimental group used a greater range of CSs, and used them more often than the control group. In addition, participants in the experimental group were engaged more effectively in the task activities and employed all the taught strategies after instruction. The learners' ability to transfer and utilize these taught strategies and in particular, their increased awareness after the instruction, are consistent with the findings of previous researchers such as Dörnyei (1995), Nakatani (2010), Teng (2012) and Rabab'ah (2013), who all found that the teaching of CSs increases speaking proficiency and helps learners to be autonomous and effective communicators.

Concerning 'Reduction strategies', the increased usage implied that, after the 12-week instruction, learners seemed to recognise the importance of these strategies, as learners used them more often to keep the conversation going, and gain time, generating an improvement of fluency (cf. Dörnyei, 1995). 'Repetition strategies', used to gain time or correct mistakes, were used to different degrees by the two groups. The data showed that participants of the experimental group were more concise in the use of repetition strategies (speaking tasks) and they used a third more of these than participants in the control group.

Neither the experimental nor the control group showed significant use of a circumlocution strategy. This correlates with the work of previous researchers such as Dörnyei (1995) and Teng (2012), who also found no significant levels of circumlocution strategy usage among students in their studies. Students in the experimental group used repairing strategies more often than students in the control group, especially in the pre intervention stage. The experimental group used 'Asking for clarification' and 'Giving assistance' strategies more than the control group, both before and after the instruction programme. The findings in the current study support Bejarano's et al. (1997) study, which found that learners in the experimental group used such modified-interaction strategies more than the control group.

Both before and after the instruction, participants in the experimental group used 'Seeking an opinion strategy' more often than those in the control group. They were able to use facilitating and paraphrasing strategies appropriately, while the control group never used paraphrasing strategy and did not use facilitating strategy in the post-task activity. In the experimental group, usage of non-taught strategies, such as 'responding'

and ‘non-linguistic’ was reduced by nearly 50% after the intervention. There was no evidence of using ‘Translation strategy’ before or after the training programme by learners in this group.

The next section provides an analysis of the interview data.

Section 4.4

Interviews results

4.4. Interviews data analysis

The interviews were used to research questions 2 and 3, which were about the impact of CSs usage on learners' confidence, and learners' attitudes to the way that CS are taught, as well as exploring whether the teacher-student relationship, culture and gender might affect the teaching of CSs and their uptake. The purpose was to obtain an overall qualitative view of learners' use of CSs and their perception of the teaching programme, which implied identifying patterns in responses. The aim was to analyse learners' strategic thinking and behaviour, rather than the types of CSs they used.

As mentioned in chapter three (3.3.3.2), interviews were conducted in English in four phases. In the first phase, six (2 male and 4 female) from the experimental group participated and were asked about their attitude towards the teaching of CSs. Three male students participated in the second phase, giving responses to questions about aspects of gender and its effect on the use of CSs. In the third phase, the researcher conducted interviews with 11 students (6 Libyan and 5 international students) to make comparisons and define issues related to gender and cultural differences. In the fourth phase the researcher in the current study contacted his previous Libyan students by email to obtain more information to understand the effect of the teaching of CSs in terms of a longitudinal impact on students (See Appendix I).

4.4.1. Areas addressed by analysis

This section focuses on the following issues:

- Learners' attitude to the training programme, their use of CSs and communicative tasks.
- Participants' preferences in their usage of CSs.
- Learners' perceptions about improvement in their speaking proficiency and confidence.
- Factors that affected the choice of CSs, such as gender, age, personality, culture and teacher/learners' relationship.

4.4.1.1. Learners' attitude towards the teaching of CSs

Question 1: How do you feel about the teaching of CSs?

Seven interviewees were asked this question at this first stage, to provide an opportunity to express and elaborate their feelings about the instruction of CSs. The results showed that all the participants felt that the instruction of CSs was beneficial and useful. In relation to this, interviewees such as Selma, Abdurrahman, and Salem observed that the teaching of CSs had enabled them to employ the strategies in everyday life, which makes them appear to be good English communicators. Abdurrahman, for example, said *'I think CSs are very useful in our life, daily life I mean. We can use it a lot in speaking with people...it is useful and important to use strategies to make them feel that you already know everything about English'*. Salem also commented that *'They are so useful because we always use them in our daily life 'reality', because if you meet someone that you do not know you know how to treat him'*.

In addition, some participants talked about their experience during the training programme. For example, Alla said *'Yeah, they are very useful actually, it helps me a lot, .These strategies I do not have any idea about it before, sometimes I use some 'Fillers', but I do not know that it name is fillers, but when I learned about the strategy it really helped me a lot especially in speaking'*. Similarly, Fatima stated *'Of course they are useful, I mean since high school we do conversations and we make them and we always talk in daily life we talk, but it is more beneficial to know what the strategies you are using and in what cases that you need and in what cases that you need them. Sometimes um for example, we use 'Circumlocution' where there is no need to use circumlocution, the one you need may be 'Repetition'*. The above comments do suggest that the instruction had increased learners' awareness of using CSs in their conversation.

In addition, 80% of the participants said that after the intervention they used more varied techniques when they communicate in the target language. For instance, one participant said *'..I have added more techniques which affects my way of speaking as a matter of fact they were very useful strategies'*. Another participant asserted that *'..I learned different kinds of conversations and how to keep your conversation. For*

example, when you start a conversation or someone asked you a question...these exceptions give the chance to the speaker/listener, the chance to hear you and not to end the conversation and to make it interesting'. When learners did not specifically say which strategy they used, they were asked to elaborate, giving responses such as *'Um, if you do not want to talk about one topic you can use 'Topic avoidance strategy' and that of course to change the topic''* (See Appendix I). When asked *"do you think it is possible to break off the conversation and use specific strategies?"* the student replied *"I maybe do and use interruption strategy for example if I don't like the topic yes!"*. Thus, it appears that participants in this group now recognised the importance of using CSs in conversation and that the training programme had impacted significantly on their actual use of these strategies. Their responses suggest that the instruction of CSs provides a new methodology in learning which is appreciated by Libyan students. This is an encouragement for Libyan educators to continue their move from traditional to more modern methods of instruction.

4.4.1.2. Learners' attitude towards their own use of CSs

Question 2: What is your perception of your own use of CSs?

As previously mentioned, a semi-structured interview format was used, which allowed for flexibility in responses and supplementary questions as required (See Appendix I). Five of the seven students were asked to respond to the question. In their responses, some interviewees acknowledged that learning CSs had been a good opportunity for them and that they had not expected to practice these strategies in the classroom during first semester.

Salem for example, responded to the question by saying *'Actually, that makes me somehow proud because I have done something in my first semester in this college and that is important thing cause I can use these strategies in reality all the time'*. Also, Aziza and Fatima respectively said *'It is the first semester for me and um it was a golden opportunity I felt that it may be not happened another time'* and *'I couldn't have done better. I have learned that there are some tasks which I have done better than*

others'. The responses suggest that practicing these strategies in their English speaking had enhanced their confidence.

In addition, Nesreen asserted that her communication skills had improved after instruction in CSs. When the interviewer asked her *'in what way?'*, and she said *'When we got training on using CSs, I had a variety of skills or strategies like avoiding the topic or to paraphrase it. Before I had a problem with using the appropriate words and sometimes I turn to Arabic words instead of English'*. Furthermore, Abdurrahman declared that *'I feel very good because I make the listener understand what I was saying and make me feel comfortable and the strategy makes the conversation very interesting I mean that is very important about the use of CSs'*. This was a typical expression of how the learners perceived that the use of CSs facilitates their skill and ability in communicating in the L2/FL.

4.4.1.3. Learners' attitude towards the communicative tasks

Question 3: How do you feel about the communicative tasks which you participated in during the training programme?

Six interviewees were asked to talk about the communicative tasks that they had participated in and anything else related to these tasks. All the participants evaluated these tasks positively. For example, Salem said *'Actually, they were very interesting and they were very practical tasks from my point of view and helped us to use special strategies e.g. fillers or give assistance or paraphrasing or asking for clarification strategies in different situations'*. Abdurrahman also believed them to be worthwhile, saying, *'I think they are very useful and they test our understanding and comprehension of the strategies and helped us to change the topics and ah now I like to use CSs a lot'*. These comments suggest that learners valued the communicative tasks, because they had challenged their linguistic knowledge in the L2/FL, and helped them to monitor their conversational manoeuvres (cf. Dörnyei and Thurrell, 1991). The conversational manoeuvres now used by the students suggests that training students to use CSs had increased their knowledge and helped them to become confident and effective learners (cf. Dörnyei and Thurrell, 1991). Thus, if teachers teach CSs and include

communicative tasks requiring CSs in their lesson plans, they can enrich students' knowledge of the target language and help them to be effective communicators (cf. Tenf 2012).

It is significant that 50% of interviewees reported that their attitude towards the communicative tasks changed from negative to positive after the training programme. Alla, for example, said *'Yes, before I did not have any idea about it um when I speak with other people sometimes I cut the conversation, but when I used these strategies my conversation continued I can finish whenever I want...I feel now I can take control of my conversation'*. It is not known if she was aware that here she was using turn-taking strategy. However, an increased unconscious use of CSs is also an effect of instruction. This student also observed *'The first tasks were a bit hard, but the as we went through them ah started to be easy for me'*. Another student commented that doing a series of tasks was useful: *'I think time after time it was better than the first time... I understand the idea and I understand the purpose of these activities so it was nice experience'*. These comments strongly suggest that instruction in CSs and the subsequent use of these strategies in the speaking tasks assisted learners to be more confident in controlling and keeping the flow of the conversations. In addition such reflections on communicative tasks show that the tasks can be used to raise learners' awareness of their learning, and recognition of their progress.

4.4.2. Participants' preferences of CSs

Question 4: Which strategy you prefer to use? Why?

The researcher asked this question to seven Libyan learners in the first phase and to five other international learners in the third phase (See chapter 3.3.3.2). The data revealed that five of the seven Libyan participants preferred to use 'Fillers' strategy when they communicate in the target language, whereas four international interviewees said they preferred 'Body language' (See appendix I). The Libyan learners also reported that they liked to use other strategies in conjunction with fillers e.g. 'Repetition', 'seeking opinion' and 'Paraphrasing strategy'.

For instance, Salem confirmed that that he favoured fillers strategy, replying, *'Fillers of course, because this strategy helps me get a few time to think of what I am going to say. Also, the way I answer will be affected by the listener that I am talking with'*. Also, Aziza asserted *'I think fillers; ah I use them always, ah to take much time to think and to organise myself' I use fillers most often'*. Besides, Fatima said *'There is no particular strategy..., but I know that the one I use a lot is fillers, when I talk I use fillers and I do not know why'*. When the interviewer prompted her to clarify that answer, she replied, using fillers: *'I use them ah probably because these strategies give me some time to think and prepare myself'*.

However, two among these five participants reported that they preferred using repetition and paraphrasing respectively, along with pause fillers strategies. Alla, for example, said *'I prefer fillers and asking for repetition these I always use. Sometimes when I do not understand well I use asks for repetition and with regard to fillers I use them immediately'*. This reply which was echoed by Abdurrahman: *'I think fillers because we make the other person interested; we make him feel that we are interested in what he is saying. Also, paraphrasing I like to do it a lot'*. The above comments showed that students were conscious of their use of filler strategies. The popularity of this strategy in interview responses correlates with the results of the data from the questionnaires and speaking tasks in this study, as well as earlier studies e.g. (Dörnyei 1995 and Nakatani 2005).

The responses of the international students were different from those of the Libyan students'. It is likely that the international students employed some CSs unconsciously. Nevertheless, all the international students cited body language, when asked about the strategies that they used most. For example, Soheab said *'When you communicate with people you use strategies or skills. We do sometimes use body language as you know'*. Shomrky echoed this response: *'...when I meet strangers, then um I use less body language, but ah when I am with people I am comfortable with then I use more body language'*. Mohammed similarly said, *'I am a teacher from origin so, I can say yeah I am using a lot of body languages this kind of stuff because when you communicate with students generally you need to have ah a kind of body language that you use'*. A possible explanation of this difference is that they were unfamiliar with the use of CSs in conversation.

At these stages, the results showed that the most used strategy was ‘filler strategy’. They also suggested that learners’ awareness of CSs tends to improve their fluency in the target language and their use of these strategies (Nakatani, 2005, Maleki, 2007 and Jamshidnejad 2011).

4.4.3. Improving their speaking proficiency

Question 5: *Do you think that the use of CSs helps you to be a good English speaker?*

All the interviewees responded positively when asked about the impact of teaching CSs on their speaking ability. For instance, Fatima said *‘Yes, of course, when you know what to say ah for example if I am speaking to a foreigner and he wants more details or if you speak to me and you cannot understand me I can paraphrase my ideas to you I can ah use circumlocution if I need it of course it is very helpful’*. Also, Selma said *‘Yes, of course, like ah especially in communication ah I did not use some strategies before and ah now ah I know about them’*. In addition, Salem asserted *‘Yes, definitely because I learned different strategies and how to speak with other people’*.

Furthermore, the teaching programme seems to have encouraged some students to use CSs in different situations e.g. in the classroom and in real-life (cf. Dörnyei, 1995). In his answer, for instance, Abdurrahman said, *‘Yes, it helped me a lot I am ah I’ve started using these strategies in my exams, when I am answering the teachers and I use it when I talk to ah foreigners outside the university I am using it a lot so I am grateful for that’*. According to Aziza, the teaching programme had increased her confidence in speaking L2/FL and provided her the opportunity to practice expressions while communicating in English. In this, she said: *‘Yes, a good English speaker and um I felt that I am better speaker than before because now I know some expressions’*. Nesreen also, believed that the teaching programme helped her to solve communication difficulties: *‘Of course, these strategies helped me to ask other students about different things’*.

4.4.4. Factors affecting the choice of CSs

4.4.4.1. Gender

Question 6: *Do men and women use different CSs?*

Various answers were obtained from the participants to the above question. The results showed that 75% of the home and international students (9 out of 12) were not sure about a connection between gender and the choice of CSs. However, two participants not only answered yes to the question, but also claimed that women generally talk more than men, without mentioning which particular strategy they use. For example, Imhemmed said, *'Yes, of course, there is a big difference between men and women because girls 'sorry for that' are talking a lot and they talk non-sense and they prefer to talk about themselves e.g. she is good at this and that'*.

Another student, Soheab, also asserted that *'What can I say, yes, they use different strategies in daily life. Girls talk a lot, but men they like to speak less, few words, but with the same meaning'*. Interestingly, even though Aziza agreed or admitted that women like to talk, she accused men of being discourteous when they speak or communicate. In this she commented that *'I think men always use strong words or language and they do not talk about or seek details in their conversation they prefer to talk straight and directly to their subject. But, for women they use a lot of strategies because they like to speak and maybe they try to be nice with others and understood. It is probably something to do with their personality trying to be sociable and nice'*. It has to be said that these comments mirror only their personal opinion, and cannot be generalised, because not all men and women think in such a way.

Moreover, one Libyan and one international interviewee reported that they feel more relaxed and communicate more effectively when they are in a gender comfort zone. In that, Alla said *'What I shall I say; as I said when I am with boys I have to know what I will say, but with girls because we know each other so I feel more comfortable with them'*. In addition, Shomrky believed that *'Of course there is much different when man you are more comfortable and hide nothing inside you, but when you speak with woman especially a stranger you would be more shy or talking to her and you look down'*. Moreover, another two interviewees agreed that the choice of CSs was

contingent on the setting in which the interaction happened. Fatima for example, said *'I do not think so; in my opinion different situations acquire different strategies., it depends on the situation and not gender'*, while Maroaf believed that *'Man and woman say ah I really have no idea. It could depend on ah their position like where they are sitting or the situation, if they maybe unmarried or if they married they could use different strategies'*.

It is possible that the influence of traditions and religion significantly affects the response to the question. The interviewees all came from a cultural background where contact between men and women is limited and constrained, especially in public work places. This might have had some effect on the learners' responses. One student confirmed this influence of culture and religion in his response: *'No, because we were not given the chance to have a conversation with them. Even in real life, we are not really given a lot of opportunity to deal with ladies'*. The results suggest that further investigation is needed to explore the influence of culture and gender on CS usage.

4.4.4.2. Personality

Question 7: *Does the personality of the learner have any effect on his/her choices of CSs?*

Various responses were given by the participants on the subject of the personality, ranging from 'Yes, definitely', to 'do not know' and 'not sure'. For example, Fatima said, *'Yes, some of the questions for me are something personal and I don't want talk about so I avoid them. Sometimes some of the questions are not that clear to me so I have little knowledge about them. So, I ask for clarification sometimes I use repetitions and so'*. Another student stated *'Um studying with boys um somehow affects me because I am a little bit shy and I am always afraid of making mistakes in front of them ah in such situations I think I use topic avoidance, but I do not have a problem with studying with girls'*. Similarly, Selma responded, *'Yes, I am very shy and sometime nervous especially in the classroom. Also when I meet strange people I got very shy at first then I got relax. So, maybe I use fillers and repetition strategies'*.

On the other hand, the international interviewees commented on the influence of personality on the use of CSs, without referring to any particular choice of CS. Here, Soheab, for example agreed that there was association between personality and CSs, saying ‘Yes, definitely I think so because you know it depends on your background and your *ah* life like *ah* how you grow up and the things you have been taught definitely affects your personality and your choices of the CSs’. Another student, Mohammed believed that social position was more important than personality: ‘Yeah, sometimes people tend to look at the personality, me normally I think that yeah look at your doctor or professor or the person you are talk to, you talk to them in a really formal way polite way’.

Others saw a definite relationship between personality and the use of CSs: *‘Personality has influence on the way I communicate. I try to like ah keep myself for myself and I’m also a shy person and I’m also quiet person so that ah might have an influence on how I communicate’*. Overall 75 % of the learners believed that there was a correlation between the personality of the learner and the use of CSs in conversation. Significantly, the results also revealed that the Libyan interviewees were aware of the use of CSs and as seen above in their responses, they referred explicitly to their choices of CSs.

4.4.4.3. Age

Question 8: *Do you think that age has any kind of effect on the choice of CSs?*

Three out of four Libyan participants who were asked this question responded that they believed that there was no relationship between the use of CSs and age. Abdurrahman, Imhemmed and Selma respectively said, ‘No’, ‘Um, I don’t think so’ and ‘No, I do not think age has anything to do with that’. Only Salem supported the view that age influenced the learner’s choice and stated *‘Age has another effect on me, if they [other speakers] older than me I’ll try to be as in their age in mind by thinking as they think’*. Then, the interviewer asked him if he considers the age of the speakers in L2/FL conversation, he asserted *‘Yes, I take age into consideration. I consider using fillers or repetition with young and old people’*.

In contrast to the Libyan learners, the four international interviewees who were asked this question commented that there was a correlation between age and learners' choices of CSs. For instance, Soheab responded, *'Definitely yeah, if you speaker with elderly person, we have to speak slowly, raise your voice and clearly so he can understand your talk. Similarly, if you talk with a child you have to speak in easy way so that you could be fully understood'*. Another student said, *'Yeah, probably, when you get older you use ah more of the repetition and ah because I speak with elderly I speak more loudly. Where, when you are with people of the same age of you, you understand each other more easily'*.

Two students, Mohammed and Maroaf, acknowledged the influence of age, and correlated age with education and respect. The former said, *'Yeah, the age as well it is part of the education impeded in our system in our body in our brains. When you talk to someone older than you or younger you don't address them in the same way, but you tend to be polite to people. I think the way you talk to people reflected your education and background'*. The latter said, *'Yes, I think so. In my country for example Bangladesh education is not well established as in here. So, they may not know the fundamentals how to talk to a person. So if you come cross they might not like ah speak in a correct manner, but if they were educated they might know how to communicate probably'*.

Although international students responded that there was a link between age and learners' choices of CSs, they did not mention which strategies young and old people employ. On the other hand, one Libyan participant identified explicitly two strategies he uses when he deals with other speakers.

4.4.4.4. Culture

Question 9: *Does culture have any effect on learner's choice of CSs?*

In connection with culture, the participants were asked a question which gave them the opportunity to respond to anything related to the choice of CSs and culture, which broadly included traditions, the atmosphere in the classroom and politics. Most

interviewees agreed that there was a relationship between the choice of CSs and culture. For instance, Maroaf said, *'Culture could do, ah certain religions like ah in Bangladesh Islam is the main religion and ah teaches us kindness and being friendly and treating your neighbour in a friendly manner correct manner'*. Others, such as Selma and Imhemmed referred to the relationship of using CSs with some traditions. Selma observed *'Some traditions make me change my behaviour and in other times get on with it and I feel relaxed'*. Aziza also agreed that culture and traditions affected her choice of Cs and added *'They have an effect on me, but not all of them, I do not know, but I think it is not about culture or traditions it is about my personality'*.

Similarly, a Libyan and an international interviewee both cited the effect of culture on personality and said, respectively *'Of course culture has its effect on me and on my personality'*, *'Yeah, I think to me it is part of my personality because when I talk to people I look at ah umm normally I don't make discrimination between I can say man and woman it is not my thing like that, but you are trying to be really respectful when you are talking to someone else especially if someone you don't know, you are talking to him for the first time'*.

Two Libyan interviewees interpreted the question in terms of wider cultural effect on relations in the classroom. In this vein, Salem reported that *'Some teachers in some subjects make me feel that they try to dominate the classes, but I always try to break that by chatting and speaking e.g. asking questions. If I do not know what to say I ask for clarification and I use some examples to make the teacher understand my idea'*. Another student, Abdurrahman commented, *'In the classroom it depends on the subjects, for example in our last training programme I mean language skills which is my favourite subject, I got to talk and to do what I want which makes it my favourite subject, but in Grammar it is boring because you cannot even talk'*. With reference to the political aspect of culture and its relation to learners' choice of CSs, a Libyan and an international interviewee both showed their unwillingness to discuss the subject. As Fatima said *'I did care much about politician because politics is something boring and full of lies so I prefer to stay out of it'*. Overall, 55% of the participants believed that culture might affect their choices of CSs, with no significant differences between Libyan and international students. All participants were from a Muslim culture, which

might have influenced the result. Further research is therefore needed to investigate the connection between the use of CSs and cultural backgrounds.

4.4.4 5. Teacher / learner relation

Question 10: Do you think that your relationship with your teacher has some effect on your choice of CSs?

Ten interviewees (half Libyan and half international), answered this question. All of them had a positive attitude towards their teachers. However, the Libyan participants talked explicitly about the association between their choice of CSs and their relationship with teachers. Selma indicated that she had enjoyed the instruction and said *'Yes, some teachers do not explain their lessons very well, but regarding the training programme which we had it was wonderful and the teacher was very good. He used very good methods to explain his lessons [use of CSs] and he made the lesson very clear to us'*. Another student observed that the training programme had enhanced his knowledge, saying, *'Since the start of studying here in this college I have no problem with the teachers. But the training programme helped me to get much information'*. Abdurrahman acknowledged that he liked the cooperating teacher and commented *'Yes, 'Mr. Edgard' for example was very good and he taught us some CSs and how to use them probably such as fillers and topic avoidance and that is precisely what the subject is about'*.

As seen from their comments, learners highlighted the significance of not only instruction, but also the impact of a positive teacher-learner relationship on their use of these strategies. This was because the instruction provided them with the opportunity to put what they had learned into practice (cf. Huang 2010). There is also indication that the instruction of CSs impacted positively on the learners' engagement and helped the teacher to develop useful materials. For example, Fatima said *'Yes, I might be somehow bias because I really like both the training programme and the teacher. Everything was fine, we learned to talk in different situations without being afraid of making mistakes ah and 'Mr. Edgard'[the cooperative teacher] presented his lessons in an interesting way'*. In addition, Salem said *'Yes, what I like about this programme is the discussion at*

the end of every lesson and the exchange of information with the other students and the teacher. Mr. Edgard listens to us and that is really good'. It can be said that the training programme strengthened the learners' TL knowledge and the learner-teacher relationship. Their exchange in the planned discussion at the end of each lesson possibly fostered this. Interestingly, the cooperating teacher acknowledged that he now usually uses CSs in his regular classes (See his response in appendix Q). This can be considered as evidence that the teaching of CSs was considered beneficial and helpful by the teacher approaching the topics used in the training programme. It appears that the instruction in the teaching of CSs helped the teacher to encourage his students to take risks and engage in the TL.

The international interviewees were very conscious of the social aspects of teacher-learner interaction, when they used CSs to show respect and politeness (See 2.9.4). One student, Shomrky, for instance, said, *'Yes, absolutely with my supervisors I treat them with respect, I show respect always listen to what they say and ah whatever instructions they give me'*. Another student, Soheab also stated *'... we have to show respect to elderly people or people who have knowledge'*. Mohammed additionally said *'As far as I am concerned the CSs I use to interact with my lecturers and friends depend on different factors... I talk to them politely, with respect generally to their position'*. Finally, a third student, Maroaf replied, *'I noticed that with my teachers I speak in a soft voice always in a good manner'*. Thus, these responses suggest that training language learners in the use of CSs affected their choices of these strategies, and increased their awareness of the importance of using such strategies in conversation. It also made the classes more enjoyable and improved the feedback on the courses and teacher.

4.4.5. The use of CSs in testing

***Question 11:** Are you aware that CSs are part of IELTS criteria assessment?*
'Questions to students'.

When asked whether they knew that IELTS criteria include assessing speaking skills which imply a usage of CSs, all the interviews (Libyan and international) responded negatively e.g. 'No', 'I do not know' and 'I have no idea'. For example

Fatima said, *'I've heard about IELTS, but I do not know about testing. I am a student um yeah'*. Another international student (Sohib) said, *'I do not know about that, um I did it before I come to the UK, but ah I do not know about how they make it'* Also, Mohammed commented that *'As I said I was a teacher, I had my own maths exams and I knew about IELTS. It could be that they use CSs in IELTS or TOFOL testing criteria know about exams, but I am not use about that'*. It is noticeable that they were unaware of the presence of CSs in IELTS testing criteria.

Although, CSs are widely present in IELTS testing criteria, they are still not explicitly taught at language schools and universities in Libya. To investigate the situation in a British context, the researcher contacted the British council in Libya, and five international language schools in Leicester. (See appendix Q). They were all asked if they explicitly taught CSs in English lessons, and if so, which communicative strategies were taught. Only two institutes replied.

One response completely misunderstood the question, thinking that it referred to a communicative approach in teaching. The other institution correctly understood the question, and replied that they were implicitly embedded in the curriculum, but not explicitly taught. Various reasons were advanced for not explicitly teaching them, which included lack of time, lack of student interest, and limited relevance to language learners apart from in certain functional exchanges. More details of the institutions contacted and the researcher comments on this issue can be found in the appendix (Q).

4.4.6. The longer term effect of CSs training

***Question 12:** What are the short term and the long term impact of teaching communication strategies on you?*

This question was part of a set of questions which were asked a year after the intervention, to assess longer term effects of the teaching. (See appendix Q). Three students responded to these emailed questions. One replied, *"The short term impact of is using CSs is to help you become a good student and the long term impact is being able to communicate properly"*. Other learners commented, *"The short term impact*

will give the student the ability to continue the conversation and both the speaker and the listener will pay more attention [and] [f]or the long term impact the students will have the ability to make interesting conversation and to know when and how to cut the conversation politely'', and, ''The short term impact of teaching CSs is that it helps me to have positive engagement with other students at the college''. Additionally ''I think that the long impact on me will be that training on the use of CSs helped me to develop my confidence and self-independence and communicate effectively''. Their comments show a belief that the instruction of CSs had impacted positively on their confidence and learning of the English language. These responses confirm that they felt that their strategic awareness had been developed by the 12 week instruction. These findings are in line with Nakatani's (2005), lam's (2026) and Nazar'i and Allahyar's (2012) studies, which found that the instruction of CSs raises learners' strategic awareness.

The researcher video recorded students in the experimental group after their completion of the training programme, and analysed their usage of CSs (See the whole text in Appendix N). After statistical analysis for validity, the usage frequency of different CSs was determined using an arithmetic mean or average.

N	Name of CSs	Frequency	Total words used in a task	Percentage of all CSs used	Percentage of each CS 100%
1	Filler	44	995	%7.93	4.42
2	Clarification	7	=	=	0.7
3	Seeking opinion	7	=	=	0.7
4	Giving assistance	4	=	=	0.4
5	Facilitating	4	=	=	0.4
6	Circumlocution	1	=	=	0.1
7	Repetition	1	=	=	0.1
8	Non-linguistic CS 'e.g. Body language'	6	=	=	0.6
9	Responding	5	=	=	0.5

Table 25: longitudinal impact of CSs on English language learners'

As can be seen, the classroom data collected through video recording indicated that learners in the experimental group were capable of employing some CSs after finishing the instruction, using them quite explicitly in their conversation. For example, they used seeking opinion strategy: *‘I did not understand what that ED stands for. What does it stand for?’*, circumlocution strategy: *‘what I mean is standing in front of the audience’*, and giving assistance strategies: *‘I believe what you are trying to say is that’* and fillers *‘uh, I mean..., I see, and actually’*. Students in this group also employed other strategies such as turn taking and agreeing (See Appendix N for more details). This shows that the data collected by using questionnaires and interviews both indicate a correlation between the teaching of CSs and the improvement in learners’ strategic awareness and confidence. The results found by these quantitative and qualitative instruments revealed that some specific strategies which include fillers, clarification, seeking opinion and giving assistance were utilised by learners more than other strategies (See tables 4.5 below).

4.4.7 Summary

In relation to research questions:

2) Does the usage of CSs have an impact on learners’ confidence in speaking English?

and

3) What are the learners’ attitudes to being taught CSs?

Participants evidently supported the teaching of CSs. The data analysis of the interviews indicated that 100% of the learners had a positive attitude to the training programme, and they reported that the instruction was instrumental in increasing their awareness of CSs and employment of these strategies in speaking the target language.

In relation to their attitude towards their own use of CSs and the tasks in which they participated, 100% of the interviewees indicated that they were happy in relation to learning CSs. In addition, they acknowledged that these tasks were very useful for them in different ways, and that they had become more confident English speakers. Some

even said that they felt lucky to have had this opportunity, and most anticipated that they would use these strategies in their daily life.

When learners were asked if the training programme had helped them to be good English speakers and improve their English proficiency, 100% believed that their use of CSs had strengthened their speaking ability, given them new speaking techniques, made them more self-reliant learners, and increased their knowledge of the target language. In exploring the extent of the effect of some factors e.g. gender, personality, culture and student teacher's relationship on learners' strategy use, various responses were obtained and analysed (See 5.4.4 for more details).

Section 4.5

CSs usage (from transcripts)

The previous section presented learners' attitudes towards the teaching of CSs. This section further evaluates the evidence by examining correlations between the quantitative and qualitative data. The 'classroom language data' obtained from direct observation of activities was analysed to answer research question 1: Can CS be effectively taught to learners, i.e. Does explicit training in a specific CS result in increasing usage by learners?

The analysis of classroom language data is presented in two ways. First, the quantitative data of the CSs which were used by learners in the pre/post speaking tasks in the two groups i.e. the experimental and control group, is presented in tabular form. The data is then interpreted.

4.5.1 Classroom language data (during observation)

The researcher used frequency and percentage distribution as statistical indicators to determine how often the students used each identified CSs. Only the strategies which were used by the students in the experimental/control group in the pre and post speaking tasks are presented in the tables below. To establish the frequency of use of the different CSs, the researcher used an arithmetic mean or average.

N	Name of CSs	Frequency	Total words used in a task	Percentage of all CSs used	Percentage of each CS 100%
1	Filler	122	1320	% 16.43	9.24
2	Facilitating	15	=	=	1.13
4	Seeking opinion	16	=	=	1.21
5	Asking for clarification	10	=	=	0.75
6	Responding	10	=	=	0.75
7	Repetition	12	=	=	0.90
8	Reduction strategies	5	=	=	0.37

9	Repairing	4	=	=	0.30
10	Giving assistance	4	=	=	0.30
11	Non-linguistic CS 'e.g. Body language'	19	=	=	1.43

Table 26: the use of CSs in the pre-training task performance of the experimental group

N	Name of CSs	Frequency	Total words used in a task	Percentage of all CSs used	Percentage of each CS 100%
1	Filler	66	1240	%11.868	5.32
2	Repetition	4	=	=	0.32
3	Facilitating	4	=	=	0.32
4	Asking for clarification	4	=	=	0.32
5	Seeking opinion	4	=	=	0.32
6	Repairing	4	=	=	0.30
7	Giving assistance	3	=	=	0.24
8	Translation	2	=	=	0.16
9	Non-linguistic CS 'e.g. Body language'	23	=	=	1.85

Table 27: the use of CSs in the pre-training task performance of the control group

N	Name of CSs	Frequency	Total words used in a task	Percentage of all CSs used	Percentage of each CS 100%
1	Filler	39	792	%11.868	4.
2	Asking for clarification	9	=	=	1.13
3	Seeking opinion	7	=	=	0.88
4	Giving assistance	7	=	=	0.88
5	Facilitating	5	=	=	0.63
6	Repairing	5	=	=	0.63
7	Repetition	4	=	=	0.5

8	Responding	4	=	=	0.5
9	Paraphrasing	3	=	=	0.37
10	Reduction strategies	2	=	=	0.25
11	Circumlocution	1	=	=	0.12
12	Non-linguistic CS 'e.g. Body language'	8	=	=	1.01

Table 28: the use of CSs in the post-training task performance of the experimental group

N	Name of CSs	Frequency	Total words used in a task	Percentage of all CSs used	Percentage of each CS 100%
1	Filler	25	250	% 11.2	10
2	Asking for clarification	1	=	=	0.4
3	Seeking opinion	1	=	=	0.4
4	Repetition	1	=	=	0.4

Table 29: the use of CSs in the post-training task performance of the control group

As the results in tables 26 and 27 indicate, there is no significant different between frequency of CSs used in oral production by participants of both groups before the intervention. However, learners in the experimental group exceeded their counterparts in employing almost all the taught and not-taught strategies. As can be seen from table 26 and 27, participants in the experimental group more or less doubled the use of these strategies, compared with students in the control group.

With regard to the post-speaking tasks, tables 28 and 29 show that there is significant performance difference between participants in the two groups. After the instruction learners in the experimental group utilised more CSs than learners in the control group i.e. 12 to 4 respectively. The teaching of CSs resulted in a measurable impact on learners' linguistic competence knowledge and their usage of these strategies in English conversation. In particular, table 28 above shows that learners in the experimental group employed four communicative strategies, 'Filler', 'Asking for

clarification', 'Seeking opinion' and 'Giving assistance' more than the other strategies. Students might have found that these CSs were more important than others while communicating in the TL (cf. Bejarano et al. 1997 and Wood 2010). These findings correlate with the data collected by questionnaires in the current study (See table 22 in 4.2.9 above). These results confirm that 'Filler' strategy is the most used communicative strategy helping students to continue the flow of conversation (cf. Dörnyei 1995). It is not surprising that learners in the two groups increased their use of the non-linguistic strategy 'body language' since it helps animate already ongoing conversations.

4.6 Conclusion

The analysis of questionnaires, speaking tasks, interviews and classroom language data has been presented. The results strongly suggest that there is a causal connection between the teaching of CSs and the changes in learners' use and recognition of these strategies. The findings of the questionnaires indicated that members of the experimental group employed more taught-strategies than their counterparts in the post-assessment process. Analysis of the data of the four speaking tasks provides firm evidence that learners actually put the taught strategies into practice, especially in the case of 'Pause Fillers'. The qualitative data of the interviews showed that learners had gained general confidence by their instruction in the use of CSs. In addition, the correlation of both quantitative and qualitative data from the classroom increases the credibility of the evidence that the teaching of CSs is feasible and effective. This provides a useful addition to the knowledge base of effective language teaching practices. These findings will be discussed more in the next chapter.

Chapter Five: Discussion of the Findings

5.1. Introduction

The data in the preceding chapter showed that there was a relationship between the teaching of CSs and the learners' perception and use of these strategies. The first section of this chapter will discuss the effect of strategy training on learners' use of CSs and their frequency, from questionnaire answers. The second section will examine the effect of strategy training on the learners' use of CSs in task-speaking activities and will consider learners' attitudes towards the teaching of CSs.

5.2. The effect of strategy training on learners' use of CSs and their frequency (from questionnaire answers)

This section addresses the following research question:

Can CS be effectively taught to learners, i.e. Does explicit training in a specific CS result in increasing usage by learners?

Main findings:

Experimental group

- After the 12-week training programme, there was a significant relationship between the teaching of CSs and their use.
- Learners statistically increased their use of the targeted CSs after the training programme. These were 'repetition', 'repairing', 'circumlocution', 'seeking opinion', 'giving assistance' and 'fillers' (Table 16).
- Learners significantly increased their use of CSs after the training programme. These were asking for 'clarification', 'seeking opinion', 'giving assessment' and 'pause fillers' (Table 22).

- Learners decreased their use of non-taught communicative strategies after the training programme. These were ‘responding’, ‘non-linguistic’ and ‘translation’ (Table 22).

Control Group

- Learners in the control group increased their use of ‘repetition’, ‘reduction’ and ‘circumlocution’ strategy in the post-assessment analysis (Table 20).
- use of the non-taught strategies ‘responding’, ‘non-linguistic’, and ‘translation’, increased (Table 20).

From the questionnaires, it appeared that there was a correlation between the teaching of the specified CSs and the increase in usage of these strategies. It’s likely that the teaching of CSs helped learners to raise their awareness of these 10 CSs. Other researchers such as Dörnyei (1995), Sato (2005), Nakatani (2005), Lam (2007), Tavakoli et al. (2011) and Alibakhshi and Padiz (2011) have similarly recognised in their studies that learners’ awareness was increased by the teaching of CSs. These studies have suggested that explicit strategic instruction helps learners to enhance their awareness and their skills of communication management. The current study’s findings imply similar conclusions.

From the results of the previous studies, it was expected that learners of the experimental group in this study would increase their usage of CSs, after instruction. The results of this study indicate that learners in the two groups varied greatly in their usage of CSs in terms of frequency. The difference in mean score results between the pre and post-training assessment of the experimental group showed a statistically significant increase in usage of some targeted CSs after the training programme. These were ‘Repetition’, ‘Repairing’, ‘Circumlocution’, ‘Asking for clarification’, ‘Seeking opinion’, ‘Giving assessments’ and ‘Pause fillers’ (See tables 16 in the previous chapter). These findings are in line with previous research on CS instruction by Nakatani (2005) and Maleki (2007).

It is likely that the increased levels of usage of these strategies are related to the training programme. The data revealed students employed these strategies more effectively than the non-taught strategies. This is probably because the training programme specifically encouraged the students to use such strategies in conversation

while speaking English. Students who acquire these strategies felt more confident in continuing the flow of the conversation. Such confidence could be a linking factor between the usage of CSs and a broader language acquisition. These results are consistent with the results of Bejarano et al. (1997), (See 5.6), and are evidence of a correlation between the increase use of CSs and the training programme.

In the case of non-taught strategies, findings in the current study demonstrated that learners in the experimental group decreased their usage of the strategies ‘Non-linguistic’, ‘Translation’, and ‘Responding’, after the instruction (Tables 16 and 22). Learners may have found that some strategies were important and useful such as ‘Asking for clarification’, ‘Seeking opinion’, ‘Giving assessment’ and ‘Pause fillers’. Consequently, they employed them when they communicated in the target language, while they may have considered other strategies e.g. translation less useful after the instruction (cf. Wood, 2010). There is evidence that, in making this choice, learners felt that they became better English communicators, which a student expressed, *‘These strategies help you to understand English and speak it more clearly in daily life’*. These findings are similar to those of Bialystok and Frohlich’s (1980) study, in which translation ranked as the least effective strategy used by students. Infrequent usage of the non-taught strategies is clearly related to the fact of not teaching them. This confirms Lam’s (2004) argument that training learners to use specific targeted strategies might not naturally spread to usage of the non-targeted ones.

From previous studies, it was expected that learners would decrease their usage of some taught strategies (See 3.5). The results showed that members in the experimental group decreased their use of ‘Repetition’, and ‘Reduction strategy’, after the training programme (table 15). A possible explanation is that success or breakdown of conversation and the choice of communicative strategy depends on the topic of discussion and the relevance of that strategy to the topic. As Wood (2010) observed, ‘Some [CSs] are specific or are best used when talking about more difficult topics’. Additionally, Seedhouse and Rabab’ah (2004) argued that repetition or reduction strategies may affect the flow of the conversation if they are unnecessary or used too much. Students thought that the frequent use of these strategies gave an indication to the listener that they are not good English communicators. The reduction in post training use of repetition strategy in the present study correlates with the research findings of

Chen (1990) and Wannaruk (2002). Chen's (1990) study revealed that students employed 'Repetition strategy' less than other strategies, and students reported that the use of this strategy did not facilitate the conversation or add any necessary information. Also, Wannaruk (2002) found that learners used less 'avoidance strategy' after instruction.

The comparison between the respondents of the experimental group in the pre and the post-training assessments (Table 15 in chapter four) showed no significant increase in the usage of 'Circumlocution strategy'. In addition, members of the experimental group employed circumlocution less than the members in the control group, after the instruction. As in Faucette's (2001) study, learners who were familiar with the use of circumlocution strategy reduced their usage of it after receiving training. The findings of the current study support Dörnyei (1995), who found no significant increase in the frequency of usage of circumlocution after instruction. It seems that learners need more time and practice in the use of CSs to improve their communication skills effectively, since Sato (2005) found that his participants had raised their awareness of CSs, but observed 'Learners need continuous opportunities to actually use English and to evaluate their use of CSs' (ibid, p5).

On the other hand, students in the control group, unlike their counterparts in the experimental group increased their use of non-taught strategies in the post-assessment stage ('Non-linguistic', 'Responding', and 'Translation') in conjunction with 'Repetition' and 'Reduction' (Table 22). A possible explanation is that these students resorted to these strategies in their L2/FL conversation because of difficulties in retrieving lexical items, and they altered their strategies while speaking. Generally speaking, the findings in the current study diverged from Sato's (2005) findings. His study concluded that students were only able to employ strategies which were familiar to them. He also found that although the explicit teaching of CSs helped raise students' awareness of CSs, the students had difficulty using those strategies to maintain the flow of conversation.

However, the current study measured the use of more CSs than Sato did (10 taught CSs rather than 5 CSs). Using this wider measurement, the current study found the explicit teaching of CSs useful in raising learners' awareness and increasing usage

in conversation whereas Sato's study found raised students' awareness, but not increased usage in conversation (See Wood, 2010). Therefore, in regard to research question 1, the findings of current study are consistent with the previous research studies of Dörnyei (1995), Sato (2005), Nakatani (2005), Lam (2007), Wong and Waring (2010), Teng (2012) and Rabab'ah (2013), apart from this particular difference with Sato.

In summary, the findings of the current study showed that the teaching CSs to learners is possible, and leads to an enhancement of learners' performance and confidence in target language conversation (cf. Nakatani, 2012). Responses of the questionnaires showed both increases and decreases in the use of particular CSs after intervention. It is possible that these differences have many reasons, such as whether the strategies were taught or not, the learners' strategic competence, and their awareness of CSs in TL conversation. More CSs were examined in the current study than previous studies e.g. (Dörnyei, 1995, Tavakoli et al. 2011, Teng, 2012 and Rabapah, 2013). Varying patterns of increase and decrease in usages after intervention have also been found in previous studies. (Wannaruk, 2003; Sato, 2005; Nakatani, 2005, 2012; Lam, 2007; Maleki, 2010; Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011; Nazari and Allahyar, 2012; Gowan, 2012; and Ugla et al. 2013).

5.3. The effect of strategy training on learners' use of CSs in speaking tasks

The focus in this section is on the impact of strategy training on learner success in implementing the strategies. The research question addressed is 'Does explicit training in a specific CS result in increasing usage by learners?'

Main findings:

- Learners usage of CSs was affected by the instruction of CSs.
- Learners in the experimental group employed more CSs than members of the control group, after the instruction.
- Learners decreased their use of the non-taught strategies 'Responding', 'Non-linguistic' and 'Translation'.

The data discussed in the previous chapter suggested that the explicit teaching of CSs contributed to language learning by increasing the learner's competence in using them. The data also suggested that the instruction enhanced learners' use of CSs in the English speaking tasks and helped them to incorporate these strategies in their English speaking after instruction (See the discussion below). This supports the findings of other researchers such as Lam (2004 and 2007), Nakatani (2007), Wood (2010) and Tavakoli et al. (2011), who claimed that teaching CSs strengthen learners' awareness and their overall communicative competence. Since there is clear correlation between the use of CSs and the development of learners' strategic competence, teaching them to learners is recommended (cf. Wood, 2010).

In addition, findings in the current study showed that learners' confidence and interest in using CSs increased substantially, not only in language tasks, but also in other areas of language usage; they became more effective communicators after the training programme. Before the instruction for instance, one learner employed the clarification strategy and said to the other speaker 'That you love'. After the instruction, a student in the experimental group used the same strategy in a more meaningful style and said 'do you mean that?' (cf. Wood, 2010). As discussed in the previous chapter, learners in the experimental group employed some useful taught expressions after receiving instruction, such as 'I meant to say', 'as a matter of fact', 'Oh, do you mean?' and 'it's a kind of' (cf. Jamshidnejad 2011). This supports the observation of Wood (2011: 242), who stated that 'CSs are developmental and it takes time for students to build a strong strategic competence'. The explicit teaching and the continual practice of CSs enabled Libyan English language learners to build confidence in communicating in an L2.

In the current study, learners of the experimental group used more CSs in the post-training tasks than their counterparts in the control group. Participants in the control group only used four strategies, along with non-linguistic strategies, in the post speaking task test (See 4.3.4). In contrast, after the 12-week instruction, learners in the experimental group engaged effectively in the speaking tasks and attempted to employ all the taught strategies effectively. This was because the instruction of CSs had increased learners' competence and had provided them with the opportunity to practice the use of these strategies. Those in the control group did not have this practice. In these

post intervention conversations, learners in the experimental group monitored their conversation and were capable of strategic manoeuvring in the target language conversations (See 4.4.1.3). Therefore the instruction in CS use appears to have had a lasting effect. This supports the findings of earlier research (Dörnyei, 1995; Nakatani, 2005; Naughton, 2006; Maleki, 2007; and Teng, 2012) on CSs instruction which found that participants had significantly increased their use of these strategies in the post-test assessments.

The speaking task data suggests that the instruction had helped learners to focus on the strategies that they had found useful, such as ‘pause fillers’ and ‘clarification strategies’ while reducing their use of strategies found to be less useful such as reduction strategies. Learners in the experimental group employed pause fillers most often, and they utilized them more than members of the control group in the pre and post training tasks. Such a strategy is considered by Dörnyei (1995) to be useful. The substantial increase in the use of filler strategies accords with findings in Dörnyei’s (1995) study, Kaivanpanah’s et al. (2011), and Malasit and Sarobol’s (2013) speaking tasks study.

Learners in the experimental group who frequently used one word fillers, such as ‘um’ and ‘ah’ before the instruction, used multiple word fillers after the instruction, such as ‘I’ll tell you what’ and ‘as a matter of fact’ (See the comment on extract 14 in 4.3.3). However, there was no mention of such a change in Kaivanpanah’s et al. (2011) study. It is likely that this change was a result of the instruction programme. In addition, learners in the experimental group employed ‘giving assistance’, a modified interaction strategy, more than those in the control group after the instruction (See chapter 4). This difference accords with the findings of Bejarano et al. (1997), (See tables 19 and 20) in the previous chapter.

The changes in levels of usage of ‘Clarification strategy’ also reflect the impact of CS training. After instruction, this strategy was used more frequently by the experimental group. These findings correlate with those of Bejarano et al. (1997) and Malasit and Sarobol (2013). It was also found that after the instruction, learners used useful taught phrases such as ‘Don’t you mean that?’, ‘Can you clarify your point?’ and

‘I am afraid I don’t understand you’ more effectively than before the instruction. This helped their conversation and interaction in English.

Another result of teaching CSs can be seen in the experimental group’s use of ‘repairing strategy’, which increased and it was employed noticeably more by them than by members of the control group (See the previous chapter). This seems to be a clear effect of the CS instruction as students in the control group in fact did not use this strategy at all after the intervention.

This increase is consistent with Jamshidnejad (2011), who found that high proficiency learners increased their use of ‘repairing’. However, Lam (2010) found no consistent increase of the use of it. Lam argued that students might be not be familiar with it, so they may chose not to use the strategy in L2 speaking task. Students employed ‘Resourcing’, the ‘strategic use of information provided in the task instruction sheet’ (Ibid: 24), more than repairing strategy, to solve their communication problems in L2 (Dörnyei and Kormos, 1998).

The experimental group students utilised the ‘opinion seeking’ strategy more in the pre and post-training speaking tasks than their counterparts in the control group. In questionnaire responses, this strategy was one of the strategies most used by members of the experimental group after the instruction. This increase corresponds with the increase that Bejarano et al. (1997) found in the use of ‘Social-interaction strategies’, which consisted of ‘seeking opinion’, ‘paraphrasing’ and ‘facilitating’.

This result suggests a similarity with Nakatani’s (2006) study, which also showed that high proficiency learners used the ‘help seeking strategy’ significantly more than low proficiency students. However, it contradicts the findings of Lam’s (2007) study, which showed a decrease in the use of this strategy. Lam (Ibid) attributed this to cultural and learning style differences (cf. 2.9.4 in the literature review), observing ‘It is expected that students of different learning styles with different cultural backgrounds may probably employ strategies in a diverse way as they learn to communicate in a second language’.

The ‘Facilitating strategy’, usage data showed that learners in the experimental group employed this strategy more than those in the control group, both before and after the instruction. Learners in this group generally found that using such strategy was

useful. Bejarano et al. (1997) also found that students in the experimental group used social-interaction strategies more than the control group.

To date, little research has been done on the use of facilitating strategy. Researchers such as Færch and Kasper (1983), Tarone (1981) and Dörnyei (1995), did not mention this strategy in their classifications of CSs (See 2.4). It is possible that researchers such as Færch and Kasper (Ibid) and Uglia et al. (2013) used different terminology to refer to it, such as 'Restructuring'. More research in this area is recommended to further contextualise the findings of the present study.

'Paraphrasing strategy', is considered by Tarone (1981) and Dörnyei (1995) to be one of the most common strategies in CSs typologies. Interestingly, the speaking tasks data in the current study revealed that this strategy was only used in the post-speaking tasks by learners in the experimental group. These findings correlate with those of Bejarano et al. (1997) and Carmen and Ruth (2012). Learners' use of 'Paraphrasing' was evidently affected by the training programme, where they learned phrases such as 'It's a kind of' and 'It's something', which were used in the exercise. This is evidence that teaching such expression helps students to diversify or use new means to achieve their communication goal.

'Circumlocution strategy' is used to describe an item or object in the target language, without saying the specific word (Tarone and Yule 1989). Learners in the experimental group decreased their usage of this strategy after instruction, whereas students in the control group never used it, before or after instruction. The findings accord with Alibakhshi and Padiz's (2011) study, which found that members of the treatment group employed circumlocution strategy less than the control group, after intervention.

An explanation for the decreased use is that after instruction there is greater comprehension, so there is less need to explain the target words (cf. Thitaidisai, 2011). Dörnyei (1995) and Teng (2012) indicated that students reduced their use of circumlocution strategy after training, although Dörnyei suggested conducting additional exploration in this area.

'Reduction strategy' is defined as 'reducing the message by avoiding certain language structures or topics considered problematic language wise' (Dörnyei and Scott

1997: 188). Students may abandon the topic because they lack the knowledge in the target language (Tarone, 1981). Learners in the experiment group utilised reduction strategy both before and after the instruction, but they used it less after instruction. This was because they had acquired a wider range of strategies to use. Members of the control group, in contrast, never used this strategy. These findings are different from those of Weerarak's (2003) study, which found that only less proficient students used reduction strategy, while more proficient students did not.

Weerarak used only classroom observation and interviews, while more data collection methods were used in the current study. It is likely in the present study that the instruction programme contributed to learners' awareness of the use of this strategy. However, the current results revealed that there was a difference in the use of reduction strategy by learners in the experimental group in the pre and post-training speaking tasks. As expected, learners in this group decreased the use of reduction strategy in their speaking performances. These findings accord with those of Alibakhshi and Padiz (2011), who also expected that students in the experimental group would reduce the use of reduction study.

It was equally expected that learners in the experimental group would decrease their usage of repetition strategy after the instruction (See 4.2.3), again, as in the previous example, because they had a wider range of strategies available after instruction. Learners' performance in the pre and post-training speaking tasks fulfilled the expectation. This strategy was used twelve times by learners before the instruction and only four times after instruction. The reduction is consistent with the findings in Chen (1990) and Wannaruk (2002) as well as Rabab'ah (2011) (See 5.2 above).

The Experimental group's usage of non-taught strategies, such as 'Translation', 'Responding' and 'Non-linguistic' also decreased after instruction. Here again, as expected, the results in the speaking tasks revealed that no learners in the experimental group did not use this strategy in the pre or post-training speaking tasks. On the other hand, learners in the control group used translation strategy or 'language switch' twice in the pre-training speaking task (See the previous chapter). A probable explanation is that members of the control group found translation a useful strategy to use, in the

absence of knowledge of other strategies. Findings in the current study confirm the findings in Teng (2012), which showed that translation was seldom used.

However, the results in the present study contrast with those of Cervantes and Ruth (2012), who found that the most frequent strategy used by members of the two groups was translation ‘language switch’. They argued that students weren’t taught to use different CSs, so possibly they found it easier to switch to their mother tongue instead of using the target language (Ibid: 125). In the current study, the teaching of CSs had helped language learners to practice the use of taught strategies during the training programme, which reduced their subsequent reliance on non-taught strategies in the speaking tasks. Thus, the teaching of CSs had impacted on their use (cf. Dörnyei, 1995 and Nakatani 2005). For this reason Nakatani (2010: 128) supported the instruction of CSs and stated ‘it is essential to develop strategy training specific for low-proficiency students’.

‘Non-linguistic strategies’, such as the use of gesture and mime decreased, as expected, after instruction in CS usage in the experimental group. Learners used fewer non-linguistic strategies, because they used more social and interactional strategies, such as ‘clarification’, ‘giving assistance’ and ‘facilitating’. These findings accord with those of Wannaruk (2003) and Teng (2012), who found that EFL Thai and Taiwanese students decreased their usage of non-linguistic strategies. However, in Somsai and Intaraprasert’s (2011) investigations, their usage increased, which led them to suggest teaching these strategies to language learners. However, the use of only a single research tool might have affected the results of their study.

In the experimental group, the use of ‘Responding strategy’ decreased after the instruction. These findings do not correlate with Bejarano et al. (1997), whose students increased their use of responding strategy after the instruction. The findings of the speaking tasks indicated that teaching of CSs impacted on raising learners’ strategic competence and promoted their actual use of these strategies. Huang (2010, p99) predicted that ‘Improved strategic competence would also benefit students’ communication fluency and skills because it enhances learners’ awareness of CSs, helps them to be confident and possibly provides them with the opportunity to manoeuvre and remain in the target conversation’. The instruction enhanced learners’ knowledge and

ability to use an appropriate CS. Thus, the results of the current study provided evidence that the teaching the use of CSs improves learners' performance and help them to be effective communicators (cf. Wood 2011).

5.4. Learners' responses the in interviews

This section focuses on the questions:

Does the usage of CSs have an impact on learners' confidence in speaking English?
What are the learners' attitudes to being taught CSs?

This section will also discuss the following findings related to possible factors that may affect learners' attitude towards and usage of CSs:

- Learners' attitude towards the training programme and the use of CSs
- Learners choice of CSs
- Improvement in speaking proficiency
- Factors affecting their choice of CSs such as gender, age, personality, culture and the teacher/learners' relationship

5.4.1. Learners' opinion on the teaching and the use of CSs

All participants reported that they thought that the training programme had been useful, and had impacted significantly on of their knowledge of CSs and their confidence in using them in L2. As one participant said '*These strategies helped me to be confident and to rely on myself when I speak with other people in English*'. These opinions accord with those found by Dörnyei (1995: 79).

Learners said that the instruction in usage of CSs had affected their actual use of these strategies. 90% of the learners had a positive feeling towards the speaking tasks and their usage of CSs in the tasks.

5.4.2. The impact of strategy training on learners' speaking ability

All participants said that the teaching programme had improved their English proficiency. Their remarks suggest that that the training programme to use CSs

enhanced their ability to learn new speaking techniques, ensured the development of both and fluency, and helped students to become more self-reliant communicators. In the words of a female student ‘.. *I learned a lot and now I have this knowledge worth to use, for example, what to say in every situation and when to employ them*’. These perceived benefits were those also identified by Jamshidnejad (2011: 535), who stated that, the use of CSs “enables participants to promote accuracy of their produced utterances in L2 oral communication”.

Hsieh (2008) observed that there was a correlation between learners’ self-reliance, self-confidence, motivation, strategy use and L2/FL achievement. The learners’ responses revealed that their self-confidence improved dramatically after the training programme. One student observed: ‘*These strategies helped me to be confident and to rely on myself when I speak with other people in English*’.

The increase of learners’ motivation was evident in learner responses such as ‘... *the training programme and Mr Egard [the cooperative teacher] motivated us and ah I felt my motivation to learning English gets bigger and bigger by the time, yes*’. and ‘... *I think the training programme was clear and there was a kind of concentration on raising our awareness and motivation. Yes, the use of CSs motivated me to take risk ah and to try to communicate positively*’ (See Appendix I). As can be seen, the above comments suggest that practicing the use of CSs in classroom led to raising learners’ knowledge and awareness of these strategies, enhancing their motivation and confidence to take risks to improve their communication. This supports Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), who argued that learners’ self-confidence and motivation might be increased through the regular practice of CSs in foreign language classroom, which promotes a positive attitude.

5.4.3. The learner’s choices of CSs

‘Pause fillers’ was the most frequently used strategy. This result accords with Malasit and Sarobol (2013), who also found that pause fillers or ‘hesitation devices’ was the most frequent strategy used. Along with fillers strategies, learners in the current study employed ‘Seeking opinion’, ‘Repetition’ and ‘Paraphrasing’ in differing

circumstances. In contrast body language was the only CS used by all the international learners in the current study.

5.4.4. Factors which might affect the use of CSs

Previous researchers (Dörnyei, 1995; Rababa'h 2005; Nakatani, 2005 and 2010) did not focus on these factors. The present study sought to examine the external factors which influenced CS usage. The opinions of Libyan and international students were used to examine the possible influences of gender, personality, age, culture, and the student-teacher relationship, on the usage of CSs. The results revealed mixed opinions, which reflected individual perspectives and experiences. 75% believed that the personality of the learner had an important role. This could be because engagement in successful conversations is associated with sociability and a willingness to communicate with other interlocutors, regardless of gender. Wannaruk (2003) also suggested that the choice of CSs were affected by factors such as personality.

Interviewed students were uncertain about the relationship between gender and the choice of CSs. They made no significant association between gender differences and the choices of CSs. The influence of gender is likely to be affected by cultural context. Since all the participants in this study were Muslim, the effects of different cultures were not evident in responses. A more culturally heterogeneous study might have provided more concrete results. In a Chinese context, Lai (2010) found that no direct effect of gender on the choice of CSs.

In an Iranian context, Kaivanpanah et al. (2011) found that female students used more of what they called social strategies ('Circumlocution', 'Asking for Clarification', 'Omission', 'Comprehension Check' and 'Use of Fillers'), than male students. They speculated that 'since these strategies were social in nature, this might be a reflection of the fact that females generally 'display greater social orientation than males'. Further multicultural research is needed to evaluate the impact of gender on CS usage.

55% of the current study participants believed that culture (here broadly defined as traditions, political culture and classroom culture), influenced their choice of CSs. No significant differences were found in the responses of Libyan and international learners

(See 4.4.4.4). Most believed there was a relationship between these variables and the use of CSs.

Libyan and international students provided different opinions on the possible influence of age. Libyans said there was no relationship between the choice of CSs and the age of the learner, whereas international students believed that there was a connection between them (See Appendix I). Overall, the views of the Libyan students were interpreted to be more significant to this issue, as they had been taught to use CSs. (See 4.4.4.3). All participants had a positive attitude towards their teacher and believed that this fostered language learning. The instruction in using CSs had promoted learners' motivation, which in turn had increased their effective engagement and target language interaction. In this Rubin (1975: 42) (cited in Huang 2010: 98), states that "good language learning is said to depend on at least three variables: aptitude, motivation and opportunity". In addition, evidence was found in the current study which indicated that there was a longitudinal impact of CSs on their implementation by learners in English conversation (See 4.4.6). On the whole, the data showed that the Libyan learners were aware of using CSs and they were more precise in their answers to the questions than the international students, particularly in exemplifying the types of CSs they employed. This is likely to be an impact of training programme.

5.5. Impact of study on existing theory and practice

1) The research impacted on learners' actual use of CSs. After instruction, learners in the experimental group were seen to monitor their own and other speakers conversation, and tended to improve their ability to communicate in English. Either their outputs continued the flow of discussion or they requested assistance from other speakers in the group. (See 4.4.1.3 and 5.3, paragraph 3 after the main findings).

2) The intervention increased learners' accuracy and their use of the taught lexis of CSs, such as 'Can you clarify that', 'Did you mean that...?' and 'As a matter of fact' etc. Their confidence as learners and their confidence in using CSs increased.

3) The use of specific CSs such as 'asking for clarification', 'seeking opinion', 'giving assistance', 'pause fillers' plus 'repairing' 'facilitating' and 'paraphrasing'

(table 20, chapter 4), significantly increased. This is a direct result of teaching these strategies (See 4.4.1.3 and the third paragraph after the main findings in 5.2).

4) As a result of this study not only has the teaching of CSs has been embedded in the curriculum in the top university of Libya (Misurata University), but also a training programme for improving quality and establishing quality assurance of the teaching has been designed (See Appendix Q).

5) The researcher investigated the importance of some social elements such as learners' age, personality, gender, culture and teachers learners' relationship, and interrogated the correlation between such variables and CSs usage (See 4.4.4 and 5.4.4 above).

5.6. Discrete and unique findings of this thesis in CSs

The thesis research showed that there are gaps in the field of teaching and learning CSs, in terms of their presence in certain testing criteria as well as the long term impact of teaching CSs to English language learners. Discrete and unique findings of the present study include:

1) There is an absence of research on the possible drawbacks of using testing systems that require a knowledge and competence of CSs for success, without explicit teaching of CSs in the courses that prepare students for such tests.

2) Learners' awareness and strategic competence (See 4.4.1.1), as well as their confidence and interest in language learning, are enhanced by the teaching of CSs. Using CSs helps them to develop a willingness to engage with native speakers (See 5.3, paragraph 2 after the main findings).

3) Teaching the use of CSs has a positive effect on learners' attitudes and motivation. Previous studies have not considered this (See the last paragraph in 5.4.2).

4) Putting CS instruction in EFL syllabuses forces countries which are modernising their education systems (such as Libya) to adopt modern teaching methodologies. This appears to be a useful way of fostering the adoption of such methodologies in these countries (See 4.4.1.1).

5) The teaching of CSs has a longitudinal impact on learners speaking ability. A year later, English language learners in Misurata University reported that they still used

the CSs learned during the 12 week instruction, so the training programme had continued to impact their strategic awareness and ability to use strategies in English conversation (See section 4.4.6 above).

5.7. Summary of findings discussion

A significant correlation was found between the teaching of CSs and the increased use of CSs by learners. It was found that the teaching of CSs is not only beneficial for language learners, but also promotes their awareness for using the intended target strategies (cf. Dörnyei, 1995; Alibakhshi and Padiz, 2011; Nakatani, 2012; and Rabab'ah, 2013). Students trained to use CSs used them more frequently, particularly the interactional CSs, such as the 'Asking for clarification' and 'Giving assistance' strategies.

Learners' increased their use of some taught strategies such as 'Pause fillers', 'Seeking opinion', 'Asking for clarification', 'Repairing', 'Facilitating', 'Giving assistance', and decreased their use of other CSs which include two taught strategies 'Reduction strategies' and 'Repetition' along with the non-taught strategies 'Responding', 'Translation' and 'Non-linguistic'. 'Pause filler' was the most frequently used strategy. The instruction of CSs impacted significantly on the experimental group in the deployment of CSs, in the more sophisticated phrases and expressions used after the training programme.

The learners' attitudes were influenced positively by the instruction of CSs and by the opportunity to practice them in class. An increase in learners' self-confidence was observed in their responses in speaking task performance and in the interviews. The study's results agreed those of with Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), who attributed the increase in self-confidence to the instruction in CSs and to the practice of communicative strategies in the classroom (See 4.4.2). Thus, the findings in the current study confirm that the instruction is beneficial, encourages English language students to be autonomous learners, and fosters effective communication in the target language. It is important for countries moving from traditional to more modern educational methods to use effective methodologies in teaching; this is evidence for a new approach in teaching that would be useful in Libya.

Chapter Six: Conclusion

This conclusion will address the key elements of the current study. After the introduction, a summary of the study is presented in 6.2. A model with both theoretical and practical features of the research is introduced in 6.3. Section 6.4 addresses research questions. Section 6.5 examines the implications of this research on existing research findings, teaching practice, and more specifically, teaching practice in the Libyan context. Section 6.6 focuses on implications for future research in CSs. Limitations of the present study in are detailed in 6.7. A statement of a conclusion is included at the end in section 6.8 of this chapter.

6.1. Introduction

The impact of teaching CSs to first year English language learners in the English department at the Faculty of Arts in Misurata University was investigated. As mentioned in chapter two (2.8), there were still areas of uncertainty caused by insufficient investigation in some previous studies (Dörnyei, 1995), (Nakatani, 2005), (Rabab'ah, 2007), and (Phan and Ting, 2008) of the effects of teaching CSs, caused by inconsistency in findings and the limitations of using single methodological approaches in investigation.

For instance, Dörnyei's (1995) study examined only three strategies (see 2.8), whereas 10 CSs were used in the present study. Also, Rossiter (2003) used only two research tools in her study, while more tools were used here. (See 2.8 and 3.3). Other problems in previous studies included issues such as the use of *written* tests to measure the usage of *oral* CSs in Salomone and Marsal's (1997) study (See 2.8).

Addressing the above deficiencies, while extending knowledge in this field, was the motivation for this study. In doing so, this research has also investigated the possible correlation between the use of CSs and factors such as gender, culture, and the learner's personality, attitude or motivation (See research question 4 below in 6.1). The impact of gender was investigated, because many previous researchers such as Kaivanpanah et al. (2011) and Khojastehrad (2012) mentioned in their studies the possible relationship of

gender to the use of CSs. Culture may be a particularly sensitive issue, especially with the role that religion, tradition and politics can play in student behaviour (See 4.4.4.4).

An attempt has also been made to investigate the long term impact of CSs training, with limited results (See 4.4.6). This study has also highlighted the importance of teaching CSs in IELTS courses (See 4.4.5). To date, no study has been done regarding the connection between the teaching of CSs and their embedding in international testing criteria. The implications for explicit teaching of CSs in this context remain to be explored.

The importance of training language learners and teachers in Libyan Universities in the use of CSs has also been highlighted by this study. Any training that can improve the competency of both the learners and teachers is particularly needed and welcomed there. The majority of teachers have a generalist training from the Faculty of Arts, rather than a more specialised one from the Faculty of Education, and in-service training in new techniques, such as the subject area of this study, are particularly valuable to them. English language learners there have particularly evident difficulties in successfully using CSs when they communicate in English.

These difficulties in Libya can be attributed to the traditional methods of teaching, such as the grammar translation method. There is an adage that says, “You can only share what you have”; the researcher believes that, with proper training, Libyan teachers can strengthen the fundamental conversational skills of their students by teaching them how to use CSs. Given the practical nature of these strategies, and the observations of their effect on the communication ability of participants in this study, this researcher believes that both Libyan teachers and students will rapidly see the value of teaching and learning communication strategies.

6.2. Summary of Study:

The study explored the impact of teaching CSs to English language learners in the English department at the Faculty of Arts in Misurata University. The literature review focused on the development of CSs in the field of 2L and FL learning. Then, the reason for teaching CSs, and definitions of CSs in the context of the current study were discussed. Two perspectives of CSs, interactional and psycholinguistic, were used in the

study. As mentioned in chapter two (2.5), the interactional perspective, focuses on the linguistic realisation of CSs, and treating these strategies as part of the discourse between two people in conversation. This implies that both the problem and its solution must somehow surface in the performance.

As discussed in the literature review, the psycholinguistic perspective, unlike the interactional perspective, regards CSs as psychological processes. In this context, psycholinguistic researchers such as Færch and Kasper (1983 b) Bialystok (1990) discussed CSs in psycho-linguistic terms as mental phenomena which underlie actual language behaviour. Færch and Kasper (1983 b) considered CSs as potentially conscious plans to solve what an individual perceives to be a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal. The researcher in the current study focussed on the interactional perspective, rather than the psycholinguistic because it encourages learners to be more practical and engage effectively in the target language conversation.

The controversy between those in favour and those against the teaching of these strategies, along with a number of empirical studies, were discussed in the literature review (2.6), to identify areas for further exploration. No previous study had been conducted on teaching CSs to language learners in Libya. This study used both quantitative and qualitative approaches to evaluate the result of teaching ten specific communicative strategies to forty English language Libyan learners. The field study lasted for 12 weeks and the participants were divided into an experimental and control group. The former received training on the use of CSs whereas the latter had standard speaking English classes. Four research tools were used: questionnaires; observations; speaking tasks; and interviews.

6.3. The Research Modal:

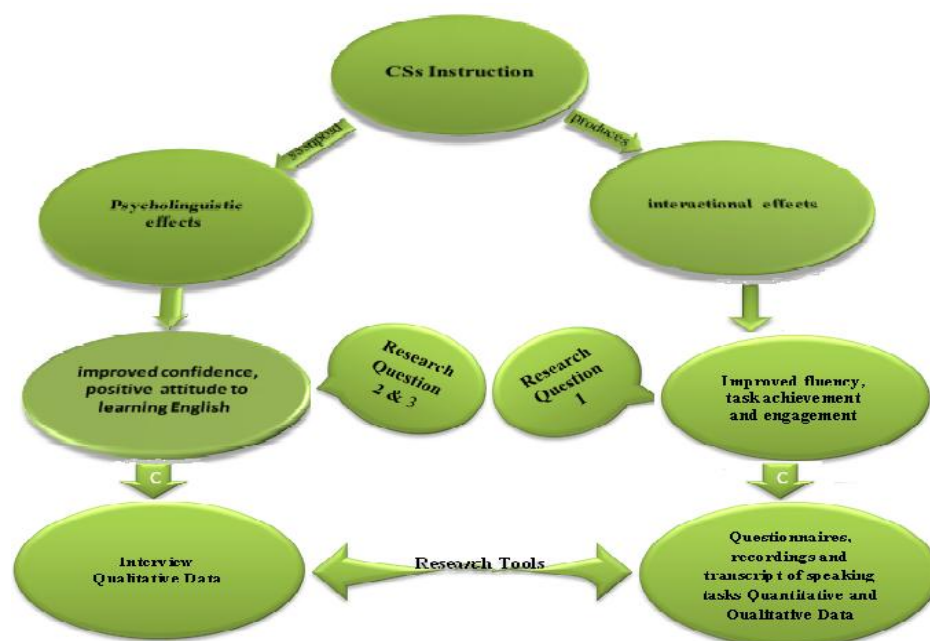


Figure 10 illustrates a model with both theoretical and practical features of the research.

6.4 Research Questions and Results

Research question 1: Can CS be effectively taught to learners, i.e. does explicit training in a specific CS result in increasing usage by learners?

The results revealed that CSs can be explicitly taught and that this is useful for learners, since they were able to increase their CS usage. The study found significant divergence between the experimental and the control group in levels of usage after the teaching intervention (See table 22 in chapter 4, the second paragraph in 4.3.5 and 4.2.11). The findings indicate the crucial role that instruction in the use CSs played. It was found that learners in the experimental group significantly increased their use of CSs such as ‘asking for clarification’, ‘seeking opinion’ and ‘giving assistance’ and ‘pause fillers’ (See table 22 and the third paragraph after the main findings in 5.2, chapter five). In addition, the findings revealed that there was a correlation between the instruction and the use of specific phrases in strategies.

These findings are broadly in line with those of Dörnyei (2005) Kaivanpanah et al. (2011), and Malasit and Sarobol (2013), who similarly found that ‘pause filler’ was the most significantly used strategy after instruction. Learners in the experimental group also employed other strategies in conjunction with fillers, such as ‘repairing’ ‘facilitating’ and ‘paraphrasing’, and indicated in the interviews that these strategies were useful and important in making their conversation more effective (See the first paragraph in 5.4.3 and 4.4.2). The increase in learners’ perceived frequency of usage also suggests that the instruction had an effect. (cf. Alibakhshi and Padiz, 2011).

Research question 2: Developing learners’ confidence in speaking the TL: Does the usage of CSs have an impact on learners’ confidence in speaking English?

Responses from learners in the interviews revealed that the teaching of CSs impacted positively on their confidence and that this facilitated speaking in English. For instance, one student commented that “.. *[the] training on the use of CSs helped me to develop my confidence and self-independence and communicate effectively*”, (See 4.4.1.3 and 4.4.6). Furthermore, the findings showed that learners in the experimental group had significantly employed the taught CSs in negotiation for meaning in the

speaking tasks. The learners' ability to implement the strategies using specific taught expressions e.g. 'It's a kind of' and 'Can you clarify your point?' and 'I am afraid I don't understand you', was manifested after they had had the instruction (See 4.4.3). The teaching of CSs had evidently impacted on the learners' ability to employ these strategies in English conversation. The training programme also helped language learners to take risks. The learners' responses in the speaking tasks indicated that they were aware of using the taught CSs and that there was a clear relationship between the instruction and their effective use of CSs in English communications. The findings support those of Dörnyei (1995) and Nakatani (2006; 2012), who confirmed the learners' recognition of the importance of using CSs in maintaining the conversation. As discussed in chapters four and five, the instruction of CSs increased learners' competence because they had evidently decided to incorporate these strategies in English conversation. It was also observed that the instruction of CSs helped the Libyan English language learners to develop their confidence and accuracy both inside and outside the classroom (See 4.4.6. and 5.4. 2).

Research question 3: Learners' attitude towards the teaching of CSs:

What are the learners' attitudes to being taught CSs?

A positive attitude towards the teaching of CSs was evident in learners' responses in the interviews. There is evidence that they supported the instruction of CSs and found that these strategies were very useful in their English conversation (See 4.4.1.1). These findings are consistent with those of Dörnyei (1995), Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), and Malasit and Sarobol (2013), who revealed that learners had a positive feeling towards being taught and using CSs in speaking the target language.

Furthermore, the findings showed that there was an association between the use of CSs and other factors, such as the personality of the learner, as well as an impact of political culture and traditions. Some might think that the relation between such variables and the use of CSs is not an important issue. However, the current study attempted to investigate this particular aspect and it seems that this investigation has been unique. The possible links between the use of CSs and variables such as gender need more investigation in the future to determine the extent of the impact on CS choice

and usage. As discussed in chapter five (5.4.4) there appeared to be little impact associated with gender on CSs usage. These findings agree with those of Huang (2010), who found no link between oral communication strategies (OCS) use and gender. However, Huang and this study investigated only monocultural groups. Investigation in other countries, with more culturally varied students, might bring more significant outcomes (See paragraph 2 in 5.4.4 above).

There appeared to be some cultural influence on the use of CSs. The findings indicate that culture had some impact on the employment of CSs, since that all the participants in the interviews associated being polite or showing respect to the others with choosing an appropriate Cs. (See 4.4.4.4 and 5.4.4). The findings also revealed a divergence of the responses of Libyan and international students in relation to the influence of age on the choice of CSs. Libyan learners responded that there was no link between age and CSs, whereas international students believed that age has an impact on CSs use (See 4.4.4.3). The researcher examined the connection between the learners' TL knowledge and their effective use of CSs (See 4.4.4.3). Huang (2010) argued that to develop learners' effective communication, teachers should prioritise motivating their learners and encouraging them to speak outside the classroom. The findings in the current study found that students had such positive attitude towards the teaching of CSs and that learners' motivation was enhanced as a result of the instruction (See 5.4.1 and the last paragraphs in 5.4.2 and 5.4.4).

6.5 Implications of the Findings.

6.5.1 Implications on Existing Research Findings

The findings in the current study indicate that the teaching of CSs has an effect on learners' CS usage. Learners of English in Misurata University used CSs more effectively in the target language after the instruction. With students who had not previously employed CSs until they had learned how to use them, the intervention increased accuracy and fluency, enhancing communication in English. These findings are in line with Jamshidnejad's (2011) study, which showed that CS usage in L2 communications enables participants to improve the accuracy of their oral interaction.

Furthermore, the study indicated that an increase in learners' strategic awareness appeared to be correlated with the explicit teaching of CSs, in their responses in the questionnaires (tables 21 and 22 chapter 4), and in the interviews, students recognised the usefulness and importance of these strategies when speaking English. This accorded with a number of recent studies (Dörnyei 1995, Nakatani 2010, Teng 2012 and Rabab'ah 2013), which showed that learners' strategic awareness was raised by strategy teaching. These results suggest that by giving guidance and direction, English language teachers can raise students' strategic awareness of CSs and enhance their ability to use CSs effectively in real-life situations. This result is in line with Faerch and Kasper's (1983: 56) study which stated "By learning how to use communication strategies appropriately, learners will be more able to bridge the gap between pedagogic and non-pedagogic communication situations". Thus, the implication for teaching practice is that EFL teachers should familiarize their students with CSs and encourage them to use these strategies whenever possible.

Moreover, the findings of the current study revealed that practicing the use of CSs in the classroom not only raised learners' knowledge and awareness of these strategies, but also enhanced their motivation and confidence (See 4.4.1.3 and 542). The boost in learners' confidence helped them to be able to communicate more easily and circumvent the problems they encountered. That confidence building could be a linking factor between CS and broader language acquisition. This supports Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), who claimed that an improvement in learners' self-confidence,

motivation and attitude can be associated with the regular practice of CSs in the foreign language classroom.

Similarly, the study examined the effect of CS training on usage, and found an increased use of specific CSs after the 12-weeks training (See 4.2.9 and 4.3). This finding confirms that of Bejarano (1997), who found a relationship between the teaching and increased usage of social interactional strategies (clarification request, giving assistance and opinion seeking). It also shows that students can recognise the importance of such strategies in improving their classroom interaction and in keeping the flow of conversation going.

In contrast, it was found that usage of some CSs decreased after instruction i.e. reduction strategy and repetition strategy, along with the non-taught strategies which included responding, translation and non-linguistic strategies. This reinforced the findings of Chen (1990) Seedhouse and Rabab'ah (2004) and Wood (2010), who all found that participants reduced the usage of such strategies i.e. reduction strategy and repetition because they found that these strategies did not facilitate the conversation and might affect the perceived quality of their English if they were over employed.

This study explored the relationship between teaching CSs and their longitudinal impact on students. Evidence was found that English language learners in Misurata were stable in their ability to employ CSs effectively a year later (See 4.4.6). This confirms the findings of Alibakhshi and Padiz (2011: 941), which found that such ‘‘the effect of teaching CSs was stable even after a long interval’’.

Gender is popular in sociolinguistic studies at the moment. For this reason I thought it is important to include this issue in my research. The findings in this study suggested that there is no apparent gender influence on Cs usage. This correlates with Lai's (2010) study which investigated the effect of gender on the use of CSs with 36 Chinese EFL learners, finding little effect. However, CS preferences could reflect the gendered communicative conventions of the learner's culture, the gendered conventions of English speaking countries, or the gendered conventions of other non-English speaking countries of learners. Learners' usage may change as they become aware of the way that gender affects conventions differently in different contexts. Outside English speaking countries, cultural conventions of the learners' culture seem

predominant. This supports the findings of Yu-Wan (2012) who found that the culture of the home country (China in their case) impacted greatly on learners' preferences and usage of CSs. It also correlates with the similar observations of Umar (2006).

6.5.2 Implications for Teaching Practice

In contradiction to the assertions of Bialystok (1983), who questioned the teachability of CSs, the findings of this study suggest that they are indeed teachable. They identify which CSs are most likely to be adopted by students after instruction, and therefore which CSs can be most effectively taught within a time constraint. (See section 4, table 23 and table 24).

Furthermore, the findings of this study offer an empirical foundation which can be used to answer questions about the types of CSs which are generally teachable. These are reduction, circumlocution, fillers, repetition, repairing, paraphrasing, facilitating, seeking an opinion, clarification, and giving assistance strategies. The findings suggest that it is useful to introduce these as fundamental strategies. Teaching should start with the basic and easier strategies such as pause fillers and repetition or repairing. Then, the more advanced strategies such as circumlocution, clarification, seeking opinion should be taught. The teacher may adjust the selection based on the actual context and task situations. Teachers should consider not teaching a large number of CSs, because it is hard for students to remember and employ too many in communicative interactional situations.

This study also highlighted the impact which CS instruction can have on the modernisation of teaching techniques and classroom culture. For countries modernising their teaching methodologies, the teaching of CSs, with their associated awareness-raising activities, is an essential change to the curriculum. It was mentioned previously that English teaching in Libya is focussed on traditional methods. In introducing the teaching of CSs, the intervention of this study showed that new techniques and teaching methods can be adopted in practice in classrooms, without major ideological debate in the institution. It also showed that students were receptive to experiencing the new techniques. These facts suggest that the teaching of CSs may have as much positive

effect on the teaching culture of the institution as it has for the communication of students.

Even in English speaking countries, the idea of explicitly teaching CSs in EFL classes has not yet been reflected in general teaching practice, as this is a relatively new area of research. The findings in this study support those of Mattsson's (1999) study, which encouraged teachers to find a balance between the instruction and the usage of CSs in the classroom using authentic communication activities to enhance learners' TL proficiency. They give an additional inducement to teachers to consider explicitly embedding CS instruction in the curriculum. They also amplify the implications of Gulzar and Al Asman's (2014) study, which found that teachers do not fully understand the potential of using CS instruction to develop the communication abilities of learners in and out of the classroom.

6.5.3. Impact on Libyan syllabus design

At university level in Libya, the majority of the syllabuses used are content-based, which provide very minimal exposure to the practical use of the language. In these formative years, emphasis on the development and reinforcement of the macro-skills must be the top priority. For an outcome-based curriculum, this study indicates that it would be constructive to teach CSs to language learners and to consolidate strategy training in communicative syllabi including language skill courses where students are provided with opportunities to use the language.

The training of Libyan teachers in the delivery of CSs has provided an effective and accessible example of how a curriculum can be developed, and the results have been shown to be practical and beneficial for students. Shihiba (2011) observed that Libyan teachers are reluctant to change the curriculum. However, the teachers in the current study welcomed the CS training programme and students enjoyed it; this demonstrates that change is possible in this context (See the responses from Libya in Appendix Q).

The teaching materials used in Libyan universities are primarily from abroad (Shihiba 2011), and there is a need for more materials produced by Libyans for the Libyan teaching and learning context. As few Libyans travel to English speaking

countries, speaking stimulus material which is uses more familiar contexts to Libyans has more success in making students speak. This study gives Libyan educators working in this area some concrete examples of the kind of educational material that that can be produced.

6.6 Implications for future research in CSs

The findings suggest that future research would be useful in the following areas:

- The effect of explicit Cs teaching on IELTS results
- The effect of gender on CS usage in multicultural groups and cultural differences in CS usage in these classes
- The impact of CS teaching on wider measures of speaking proficiency levels
- The longitudinal impact of CS teaching, using larger samples and general sample size
- A comparison of CS usage between native and non-native speakers to further understand usage and acquisition

Future researchers should consider examining the use of CSs in tests such as IELTS in different parts of the world. This study explored the awareness of both staff and students of the embedding of CS usage in tests such as IELTS (See 4.4.5). Although CSs are widely and implicitly present in IELTS testing criteria, they are still not explicitly taught at language schools and universities in Libya, or elsewhere. Since this study has found that fluency and confidence improves with CS instruction, it would be interesting to research the effect of explicit teaching of CSs on test results.

In investigating gender, the number of students who participated in the present study was small and all were from the same cultural background. It was observed that learners greatly restricted their CS usage to polite social formulas, as they were not fully aware of the norms of the target culture and many were afraid of being cultural inappropriate. For these reasons, research into the influence of gender could be usefully continued with greater numbers of students in more multi-lingual and multi-cultural

English groups, learning in both English speaking and non-English speaking countries. As discussed previously in chapter 4 and 5, further research is generally needed to examine the relationship between gender differences and the teaching of CSs in foreign contexts. The current study was conducted in Libya, and Dörnyei's (1995) study was conducted in Hungary; studies in a greater number of countries would add to understanding of this issue.

This study showed that the teaching of CSs improves their usage by learners, but future studies need to test their effect on overall speaking skills using a wider range of internationally accepted tests. This could be done at the same time as investigating their effect on IELTS scores by including IELTS testing formats among a range of testing formats.

The longitudinal aspect of the current study was only attempted with a small number of students, so this would be an area to investigate more fully in future research. The overall number of participants was the 40 first year learners studying English language at Faculty of Arts in Misurata University in Libya plus five international students. More conclusive findings might have been obtained if the study were replicated with a larger sample at the same university or different universities in Libya.

6.7. Limitations

The conflict in Libya affected the implementation of this study, by imposing an unexpected time constraint on it. Although the researcher travelled to Libya in January 2011 to conduct the field work, because of the war it was not implemented until late November 2012, when he had returned to the UK. This period had been planned for setting up and supervising the study's teaching intervention, as well as testing participants and training teachers, but the researcher was instead compelled to take part in military action to rid the city of Misurata of the invading troops of the collapsing government. Furthermore, not all the usage of targeted strategies were seen to increase significantly (circumlocution strategy is an example). This might be attributed to the time constraint mentioned above and the sample size.

In addition, limited experience of using some statistical analysis techniques used in the SPSS, created some difficulties in analysing the data. Therefore, external

expertise was sought for help in analysing it. An additional constraint was that, due to the limited time, a language test could not be used to determine the English level of the participants. (See 1.1). Finally, an attempt was made to investigate a possible association between the use of CSs with gender. However, no significant influence of gender on the choice of CSs was found. This was possibly because the sample size in this study was relatively small and the fact that this issue was explored in only one particular culture i.e. Libyan or Muslim culture as discussed in (4.4.4.1 and 5.4.4).

6.8. Statement of conclusion

To investigate the impact of the teaching and usage of CSs on English language learners in the English department at Faculty of Arts in Misurata University in Libya, an interventionist study, which lasted for twelve weeks, was used. The findings of the study as well as the findings of other researchers in this field such as Dörnyei (1995), Nakatani (2005 and 2010) and Tavakoli et al. (2011) support the teaching of CSs. The current study found evidence that the instruction of CSs was a key element in increasing learners' strategic competence and confidence in communicating in English.

Pedagogically, this study found that an enhancement of learners' pragmatic communication ability was an impact of teaching CSs to English language learners. This is an endorsement of integrating strategy training and embedding the practice CSs in classroom activity, which was the teaching intervention devised by the current study. As discussed in chapter one (1.2), language learners in the English department at Misurata University receive too little on oral communication practice, because of traditional methodologies. Therefore, English language learners need to be exposed explicitly to the use of CSs both inside and outside the classroom. This research shows how training English language teachers to teach CSs and use them in their lesson activities can help students to improve their confidence, speaking performance and become effective communicators in English (cf. Huang 2010 and Tavakoli et al. 2011).

Furthermore, this study suggested that variables such as gender differences and age have little influence on the choice of CSs, whereas the personality of the learners and culture along with motivation in speaking English were found likely to have more effect on learners' choice of CSs. Practicing CSs inside and outside the classroom and

motivating students to take every opportunity to speak the target language is considered as an essential elements for learning new skills and enhancing learners' communicative competence (Huang 2010). MacIntyre and Charos (1996, cited in Baker and MacIntyre 2000: 213) pointed out that "[If] foreign language learners lack the opportunity for constant interaction in the L2, they should be less likely to increase their perceived competence willingness to communicate and frequency of communication".

In addition, the current study went further than Dörnyei (1995), who investigated the impact of teaching CSs in Hungary with relation to only three strategies (See 2.8). Although the current study has some limitations, it has been provided evidence that there is a direct correlation between the instruction of CSs, the frequent use of these strategies in learners' performance in some authentic speaking tasks, raising learners' awareness of the importance of such strategies in English conversation, the enhancement of learners' strategic competence and the development of their speaking abilities.

As a closing point, the theory of CSs should be implemented in practice (Gordon and O'Brien 2007). Some theories never 'take off', because they are too complicated to implement. Teaching CSs can effectively be done in the classroom. This is why the teaching of CSs has every chance to succeed in practice, because I have demonstrated that it can be done in Libya educational conditions.

End of thesis

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Appendix Appendix A

Ministry of higher Education

Misurata University

The Information and Documentation Centre

**Students' Average in Faculty of Arts
2012/2013**

During the Semester

	Number of the students								
No	Departments	Libyan			Non Libyan			Total	
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1	Arabic Department	47	385	432	1	1	2	48	386
2	English Department	158	599	757	5	23	28	163	622
3	Philosophy Department	23	17	40	1	1	2	24	18
4	French Department	43	45	88	2	2	4	45	47
5	Sinology Department	23	75	98	0	0	0	23	75
6	History Department	32	47	79	1	0	1	33	47
7	Geography Department	10	9	19	2	0	2	12	9
8	psychology Department	8	97	105	0	0	0	8	97
9	Education Department	8	122	130	0	0	0	8	122
10	Journalism Department	148	133	281	6	6	12	154	139
11	Islamic Studies	81	196	277	1	1	2	82	197
12	Liberian Department	25	56	81	0	1	1	25	57
13	Tourism and Archaeology	153	41	194	2	0	2	155	41
14	Italian Department	47	2	49	0	0	0	47	2
	Total	806	1824	2630	21	35	56	827	1859

Signature

Appendix B
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH
Faculty of Arts
Misurata University
Misurata, Libya
Final Examination
Language Skills I
Speaking

Name _____ ID number _____
_____ Group _____

RUBRIC FOR SPEAKING TEST

ELEMENTS	CRITERIA				Points
	3	2	1	0.5	
Fluency	Speech rate is very natural	Speech rate is slow but doesn't cause any problem in comprehension	Speech rate is very slow but causes only minor problems in comprehension	Speech rate causes serious problems in comprehension	
Vocabulary	Word choices are well chosen to aid the listener's understanding	Words are consistent and demonstrate understanding of the subject	Words are fairly consistent but inappropriate in some respects	Words fail to show knowledge of the subject	
Pronunciation	Shows accurate pronunciation of individual sounds	Very few minor pronunciation, intonation and rhythm errors but doesn't affect the meaning	Have some problems with pronunciation of individual sounds, intonation and rhythm that slightly affect the meaning	Mispronounced most of the words	
Comprehension	The speaker's knowledge of the subject is accurate throughout	The speaker is informed about the subject except in minor details	The speaker has limited knowledge about the subject	The speaker's knowledge of the subject is inaccurate	
Grammar	All sentences consistently emphasized the ideas clearly and logically	Except for some isolated errors that don't confuse the intended meaning, sentences are grammatically complete	Grammar or usage errors may occasionally appear which confuses the meaning	Grammar or usage errors frequently confuse the intended meaning	
Total					

Evaluator's Comments

Evaluator's Signature

Appendix C

Sample of the first year students in the English department



وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي
جامعة مصراتة
مصراتة - ليبيا

Ministry of Higher Education & Scientific Research
Misurata University - Libya



التاريخ: 1 / 1 / 2023
الموافق: 2023 / 01 / 23

الرقم الاشاري: 11

To whom it may concern

Please be kindly informed that the number of the new students in department of English Language, Faculty of Arts, Misurata University is as follows:

Male Students	Female Students	Total of Students
36	128	158

This statement has been given to Mr. Yassen Ehmaid, upon his own request.



Mr. Omar H. Alowaylim
Head of English department

Appendix D

Interview Consent Form

Researcher: Yaseen Abdulgader Hmaid, PhD student, School of Education, University of Leicester, K.

Dear

I wish to invite you as one of the participants in the above mentioned research study. This research seeks to explore the effect of teaching communication strategies (CSs) to English language learners in Libya. Your participation in the study is of immense importance to the success of the study and could result in our greater understanding and possible improvement of students' communication strategies.

The research is conducted respecting your rights, interests and dignity in conformity with rules and regulations of the British Educational Research Association (BERA), Revised Ethical Guidelines (2004). Any information given by you will be used for research purposes only, will be reported with utmost integrity and objectivity and will be treated with the greatest respect of privacy, confidentiality and anonymity. You will not be identifiable, directly or indirectly, in the final outcome of the study, which will be in the form of a thesis.

Your participation will be in the form of interview. This interview is conducted in English and you will be recorded. I will do all I can to make sure that your privacy is respected. If you wish, you may leave the study at any time. Should you agree to take part in this research study, please complete the following and sign at the bottom.

Thank you,

Yaseen Hmaid, Principal Investigator

CONSENT

I have read the information above, and I agree to participate in this study

Name _____ Signature _____ Date _____

Appendix E

Questionnaire

Please grade the following on a 5-point scale questionnaire. It is used to acquire your opinion on the use of communication strategies while speaking and communicating in English. Communication strategies are “devices learners use while communicating in the target language in order to solve problems and to enhance the effectiveness of communication”. This questionnaire seeks to find out more about the frequency with which you use communication strategies. Please choose how often do you generally use the strategy when speaking English inside and outside the class.

The questionnaire is used for doctoral research which investigates Libyan English language learners’ communication strategies. Your responses to these questions are strictly anonymous. You should not include your name on the sheets. Please respond as accurately and honestly as you can.

Communication Strategies You Use		How often you use each one				
Type of Strategy		Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
A	I repeat / I ask students to repeat the words or phrases they have just said to help me understand and to gain time					
B	I don't mind making mistakes					
C	If I have difficulty to use the right word for something, I try to					

	describe it					
D	If I do not know the meaning of a word or the structure is not clear, I prefer not to talk					
E	I direct the conversation to a topic for which I know the words					

Communication Strategies You Use		How often you use each one				
Type of Strategy		Nev	Rar	So	Oft	Alw
	If I don't agree with other students, I tell them so					
	When I don't understand others, I use gestures or facial expressions to make themselves clear					
	I use some words/expressions to respond to or to expand the discussion e.g. 'really?', 'I agree', 'what do you mean by that'					
	I like to clarify what I think is right					
	I ask other students to confirm the meaning of a word or phrase which I don't know					
	If someone doesn't understand the meaning of a word or the grammatical structure, I don't hesitate to help him/her					
	When I don't know the right word(s), I use words or phrases with similar meaning					
	I use fillers such as 'um', 'well', 'you know', to help me to think of what I say					

	When I do not know the right English word, I use an Arabic word					
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Thank you for completing the questionnaire

*This questionnaire is adapted from
Lam's (2006) study.*

Appendix F

Questionnaire:

Please grade the following on a 5-point scale questionnaire. Your responses to these questions are strictly anonymous. You should not include your name on the sheets. Please respond as accurately and honestly as you can.

No	Type of strategy	Agree	Strongly agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	When I need to think of what to say, I repeat words or phrases I have just said to gain time to think					
2	I pay more attention to the content of what I say than to the words I use or to my pronunciation					
3	When I have difficulty to use the right word(s), I try to describe it to the other students					
4	When I don't know the topic, I prefer to change the direction of the discussion rather than staying silent					
5	I translate into native language little by little to understand what the speaker has said					
6	I direct the conversation to a topic for which I know the words					
7	When I don't agree/agree with other students, I tell them so					
8	When I don't understand others, I use gestures or facial expressions to make themselves clear					
9	I tend to give extra examples to expand the discussion (build on a previous comment made by another student)					
10	When I don't understand what others mean, I ask them what they mean					
11	When I don't understand something, I ask other students to help me					
12	When I have difficulties in understanding I use gestures					
13	When a student doesn't understand something, I don't hesitate to help him/her					
14	I try to relax whenever I feel anxious about using a new word or phrase					
15	When I have difficulty in thinking of the right word(s), I use words or phrases with similar meaning to express myself					

16	When I realise that another student has used the wrong words, phrases or pronunciation, I (immediately) correct them					
17	When I don't understand others, I ask them to repeat the words or phrases they have just said to help me understand their meaning					
18	When I need to think of what to say, I use fillers such as 'um', 'well', 'you know', 'I see what you mean', etc. to gain time					
19	When I have difficulty in expressing myself, I refer to the notes given by the teacher for suggestions of words and structures to help me in the discussion					
20	When I don't understand others, I listen quietly and hope that I can understand without having to ask them to clarify themselves					
21	I usually make a clear mental image of [a new] word to remember it					
22	I imitate the way native speakers talk					

Thank you for completing the questionnaire

This questionnaire is adapted from Lam's (2006) study.

Appendix G

An example of some notes were taken by the researchers while observing the students

17/12/2012

Repletion strategy:

Stages: before the start of the conversation.

- The teacher introduces the strategy to the students.
- The teacher use papers and stuck them on the board and asked the students read the definition of the strategy.
- The teacher introduced some useful vocabulary and phrases related to the repetition strategy.
- The teacher modelled the strategy with one of the students in order to make sure that they know how to use it in a conversation.
- The teacher used a real conversation i.e. he let his students listen to real English conversation.

The actual conversation: (the use of repetition and other strategies e.g. fillers, clarification strategies and body language)

A. Have you heard about the massacre in Connecticut?

B. Where did you say, can you repeat it please? [Repetition].

A. In Connecticut in the USA. A man was in a school and killed 26 people [Repetition].

C. Oh that is a big number! [She used facial expression].

B. Is it secondary or elementary school? [Clarification strategy].

A. Actually, ah I can't really remember, but I think it is an elementary school [fillers].

C. That is so bad (body language again).

25/12/2012

Seeking Opinion:

Stages: before the start of the conversation.

- The teacher introduces the strategy to the students.
- The teacher asked his students the following question:

How do you understand seeking opinion in the first place?

- One of the students asked the teacher what is the difference between seeking opinion and advice? [He answered the question].

- The teacher encouraged his students to use other strategies in the same conversation.

The actual conversation: the use of seeking opinion and other strategies

N: Last month I read two books, one of them was ah was a novel [fillers].

S: Who's the writer? [Seeking opinion].

N: She's Jane Austin. She is well known novelist.

S: Yes, yes, ah she a famous writer her plots were amazing [Facilitating strategy and filler].

F: Do you ah do you have any critical thought about the novel? [Seeking opinion and filler].

N: Um, no, I really have an enjoyment while I was reading her writing [Filler].

S: What makes you think like this? [Seeking opinion].

N: Yes, different styles encouraged me to read more for her which makes me a read lover [responding].

Participants were: Asma, Nora, Fatima and All

Appendix H

An interview schedule

This is a preliminary interview schedule in which question might be reconstructed if needed. The researcher asked some learners to volunteer to participate in this interview in order to find out their general feelings, problems, and the ways of seeing this programme. The interviewer told his interviewee the reason behind this interview. This was followed by asking their names and age to makes them feel more relaxed. The researcher conducted these interviews in English.

Interview questions:

Can you tell me how do you feel about the teaching of CSs? Are they useful, and in what ways?

.....
.....
.....

.....How do you feel about the communicative tasks which you participated in?

.....
.....
.....

.....What is your perception of your own use?

.....
.....
.....

.....Which strategy do you think most effective for you?

.....
.....

.....
.....What do you like the instruction of CSs?
.....
.....
.....
.....What do not you like about the instruction of CSs?
.....
.....
.....
.....What did you learn from this programme?
.....
.....
.....
.....Have you encountered any problems with regard to understanding CSs?
.....
.....
.....Do you think that the use of these strategies help you to be a better English speaker?
.....
.....
.....
.....Do you have any additional thought that you would like to add?
.....
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.....

The researcher also considered using some general prompts which ask for more information, e.g. ‘that’s interesting, can you tell me more about that?’ or ‘can you give me an example of?’

Questions asked in the interviews

- 1: *How do you feel about the teaching of CSs?*
- 2: *What is your perception of your own use of CSs?*
- 3: *How do you feel about the communicative tasks which you participated in during the training programme?*
- 4: *Do you think that the use of CSs helps you to be a good English speaker?*
- 5: *Which strategy you prefer to use? Way?*
- 6: *Do men and women use different CSs because of their gender?*
- 7: *Does the personality of the learner have any effect on his/her choices of CSs?*
- 8: *Do you think that age has any kind of effect on the choice of CSs?*
- 9: *Does culture have any effect on learner’s choice of CSs?*
- 10: *Do you think that your relationship with your teacher has some effect on your choice of CSs?*

Appendix I

Interviews conducted in this study:

Phase 1

Aziza

Good afternoon

R: *Can you tell me how do you feel about the teaching of CSs?*

Az: *I think they are useful because I learned many things, I learned different kinds of conversations and how to keep your conversation. For example, when you start a conversation or someone asked you a question you will say um, actually, well these excerpptions give the chance to the speaker/listener, the chance to hear you and not to end the conversation and to make it interesting.*

R: *Could you elaborate on that? I mean can you tell me more about this issue?*

Az: *I learned to share the ideas with my friends ah or my classmates and listened to his or their ideas, try to respect the other opinion and the other comments and ah I learned how to encourage myself and to sand in front of my classmates and express my opinion and conversation.*

R: *How do you feel about the communicative tasks which you participated in?*

Az: *I think time after time it was better than the first time and um I felt interesting really because ah I understand the idea and I understand the purpose of these activities so it was nice experience.*

R: *Have you found that the instruction of CSs useful?*

Az: *'I think the instruction was easy to fellow and the teacher helped us to understand the idea and explained the ideas clearly'.*

R: *Which strategy you prefer to use? Way?*

Az: *'I think fillers; ah I use them always, ah to take much time to think and to organise myself I use fillers most often'.*

R: *What is your perception of your own use of CSs during the training programme?*

Az: *Sure, It is the first semester for me and um it was a golden opportunity I felt that it may be not happened another time and ah I learned more and I want to thank you and thank Mr. Ed for this opportunity.*

R: *Have you encountered any problems?*

Az: May be the first time I was afraid and it was the first time to ah share with someone research so I was afraid and ah may be ah I do not trust myself that I can help him, but at the end I ah felt ah better.

R: Do you think that training on the use of CSs helps you to be a good English speaker?

Az: 'Yes, a good English speaker and um I felt that I am better speaker than before because now I know some expressions'.

R: Do you want to add anything Aziza?

Az: No, I just wish you a good luck in your research and um and to arrive to your successfulness and hear very good thing about you. I wish that we helped you as you want

R: yes, I do really appreciate your help and thank you very much for that.

Az: And thank you for this opportunity, really ah I feel that it will never come to us another time.

Az: In sha-allah you will get more chances in the future, thank you very much.

Salem: Good Afternoon

R: I would like to ask you about your attitude of the training programme or the sessions which we have gone through so far. Can you tell me how do you feel about the teaching of CSs?

S: 'They are so useful because we always use them in our daily life 'reality', because if you meet someone that you do not know you know how to treat him and if you want to avoid the topic you can use one particular strategy and so on'.

R: Can you be more specific and tell me more please in what way they are useful?

S: Um, if you do not want to talk about one topic you can use 'Topic avoidance' strategy and that of course to change the topic.

R: In the course of the conversation do you think it is possible to break off the conversation and use specific strategies?

S. I maybe do and use interruption strategy for example if I don't like the topic yes!

R: Ok, how do you feel about the communicative tasks which you participated in during the training programme?

S: Actually, they were very interesting and they were very practical tasks from my point of view and ah helped us to use special strategies e.g. fillers or give assistance or paraphrasing or asking for clarification strategies in ah different situations.

R: What is your perception of your own use of CSs?

S: 'Actually, that makes me somehow proud because I have done something in my first semester in this college and that is important thing cause I can use these strategies in reality all the time'.

R: Which strategy you prefer to use? Way?

S: 'Fillers of course, because this strategy helps me get a few time to think of what I am going to say. Also, the way I answer will be affected by the listener that I am talking with'.

R: Have you found that the instruction of CSs useful?

S: 'Yes, interesting! These strategies were so important for example ah to face problems and speak good English'.

R: What did you learn from this programme?

S: 'As I said before, I learned how to deal with people and how to think about their feeling and to respect their opinion and their reaction too'.

R: Do you think that the use of CSs helps you to be a good English speaker?

S: 'Yes, definitely because I learned different strategies and how to speak with other people'.

R: Have you encountered any problems?

S: Maybe at the beginning, but the training programme and Mr Egard motivated us and ah I felt my motivation to learning English gets bigger and bigger by the time, yes.

R: Would you like to add something to this?

S: No, thank you.

R: Thank you very much Salem.

Nesreen: Good Afternoon

R: Can you tell me how do you feel about the teaching of CSs? Are these strategies useful?

N: Actually, 'I have no idea about CSs before taking these sessions, but now we are having more knowledge about them. Yeah, there are many benefits of the training programme for example I have learned many things related to the techniques, I have added more techniques which affects my way of speaking as a matter of fact they were very useful strategies'.

R: Ok, how do you feel about the communicative tasks which you participated in during the training programme?

N: The first tasks were a bit hard, but the as we went through them ah started to be easy for me.

R: What is your perception of your own use of CSs?

N: It improved, yeah it has improved,

R: *Ok, in what way?*

N: *'When we got training on using CSs um I have a variety of skills or strategies e.g. avoiding the topic or to paraphrase it. Before I had a problem with using the appropriate words and sometimes I turn to Arabic words instead of English '.*

R: *Which strategy you prefer to use? Way?*

N: *'Um, seeking opinion, because it give more details and descriptors and make you understand the topic more easily'.*

R: *What did you learn from this programme?*

N: *I feel that there is something improves my language or myself and make me do not give up.*

R: *Have you faced any problem during the training sessions?*

N: *Actually no.*

R: *Do you think that the use of CSs helps you to be a good English speaker?*

N: *Of course, all the strategies related to speaking more than writing.*

R: *Do you want to add anything else?*

N: *Thank you for given us such opportunity and experience.*

R: *Thank you very much Nesreen.*

Fatima:

R: *Good afternoon*

F: *Good afternoon*

R: *your name is..*

F: *Fatima.*

R: *Ok, Fatima, I would like to ask you about the sessions which we went through so far. Can you tell me how do you feel about the teaching of CSs?*

F: *'Of course they are useful, I mean since high school we do conversations and we make them and we always talk in daily life we talk, but it is more beneficial to know what the strategies you are using and in what cases that you need and in what cases that you need them. Sometimes um for example, we use 'Circumlocution' where there is no need to use circumlocution, the one you need may be 'Repetition'. I mean we use them but we do not know which one is the right one.*

R: *So, it is about terminology, you do not their names*

F: *Yes.*

R: *Ok, how do you feel about the communicative tasks which you participated in during the training programme?*

F: *I feel good I am satisfied to some extent, may be some time I feel.. Um... I couldn't have done better, but I am good at the end of the day I learned something.*

R: *What is your perception of your own use of CSs+?*

F: *'As I said I could not have done better, but ah it is ok, there always this feeling inside me I couldn't have done better. I have learned that there are some tasks which I have done better than others ah for example the use 'Fillers' a lot'.*

R: *Which strategy you prefer to use? Way?*

F: *'There is no particular strategy because I think different situations acquire different strategies, but I know that the one I use a lot is fillers, when I talk I use fillers and I do not know why.*

R: *is there any special reason?*

F: *I use them ah probably because these strategies give me some time to think and prepare myself'.*

R: *Ok, have you found that the instruction of CSs useful?*

F: *Of course I think was helpful.*

T: *can you tell me more about that?*

F: *'Ok, these strategies well organised and I think they were um for every strategy there are more than one example for more than one situation so that makes it so helpful'.*

R: *What did you learn from this programme? Do you think for example that this programme increased your speaking ability?*

F: *What did I learn, yes, as I told you I learned a lot and now I have this knowledge worth to use, for example, what to say in every situation and when to employ them.*

R: *Ok, do you think that the use of CSs helps you to be a good English speaker?*

F: *'Yes, of course, when you know what to say ah for example if I am speaking to a foreigner and he wants more details or if you speak to me and you cannot understand me I can paraphrase my ideas to you I can ah use circumlocution if I need it of course it is very helpful'.*

R: *Have you encountered any problems?*

F: *Not really, because I think the training programme was clear and there was a kind of concentration on raising our awareness and motivation. Yes, the use of CSs motivated me to take risk ah and to try to communicate positively.*

R: *Ok, do have any additional thoughts or do you want to add something else?*

F: Thank you thank you.

R: Yes, thank you for being with us.

Allya

R: How are you? You have said that your name is Alla yes

Al: Yes.

R: I would like you tell me how do you feel about the teaching of CSs?

Al: Yeah, they are very useful actually, it helps me a lot. These strategies I do not have any about it before, sometimes I use some 'Fillers', but I do not know it name is Fillers, but when I learned about the strategy it really helped me a lot especially in speaking I make conversation with other people ah it becomes really interesting.

R: Have you found that the instruction was useful?

Al: 'It was very good and ah very beneficial because it helps you to use other expressions and to speak with other people. When we learn these strategies I feel like I speak fluently like America and British speakers'.

R: How do you feel about the communicative tasks which you participated in?

AL: Yes, before I did not have any idea about it um when I speak with other people sometimes I cut the conversation, but when I used these strategies my conversation continued I can finish whenever I want ah just not cut it and continue speaking ah I feel now I can take control of my conversation.

R: Which strategy you prefer to use? Way?

Al: 'I prefer fillers and asking for repetition these I always use'.

R: Why

AL: 'Sometime when I do not understand well I use asks for repetition and with regard to fillers I use them immediately'.

R: What did you learn from this programme?

Al: Actually, it is really beneficial for me before um when I watch TV English programmes I want to speak like them and use a expression, but I do not know how to use it, but when I learned about these strategies there is no difference between us, I know how to use it when to use it what I can say so it really helped me a lot.

R: Have you encountered any problems?

Al: Before, I had problems at first I feel it is difficult to memorise the names of strategies, but now I know them it was a kind of difficult to know what the difference between them is.

R: What did you learn from this programme?

Al: This programme gave me the chance and the opportunity to learn more and more in English.

R: Ok, do you want to add anything?

Al: I am really happy um I want to say thank you for everything.

R: I also appreciate your help, thank you very much.

Al: you are welcome.

Good afternoon

Selma.

R: Ok, can you tell me about the teaching of CSs, are they useful and if so in what way?

S: learning these about strategies is useful and beneficial because I learn how to communicate with people and I learned many things I did not know about it before like ah Repetition and Topic avoidance and ah yes ah Repetition.

R: Have you encountered any problem in this programme?

S: Yes, because something is new, sometimes I am nervous and ah ah now I learn we understand the ah topics every day now.

R: Which strategy you prefer to use? Way?

S: 'Asking for repetition because this strategy makes me repeat my question and because sometime I do not understand something and it helps me in my speaking'.

R: What did you learn from this programme?

S: 'Yes, I learn many things yes, I feel that I became better than ah before'.

R: So, do you think that learning CSs helps you to be a good English speaker?

S: 'Yes, of course, like ah especially in communication ah I did not use some strategies before and ah now ah I know about them'.

T: Would like to add something else?

S: No,

T: I would like to thank you for coming today to this interview.

Abdurrahman

Good afternoon:

R: Can you tell me about the teaching of CSs, are they useful and if so in what way?

Ab: *I think CSs are very useful in our life, daily life I mean. We can use it a lot in speaking with people or even writing about things um when we speak to a foreigner it is useful and important to use strategies to make them feel that you already know everything about English or something like that.*

R: *How do you feel about the communicative tasks which you participated in?*

Ab: *I think they are very useful and they test our understanding and comprehension of the strategies and helped us to change the topics and ah now I like to use CSs a lot.*

R: *What is your perception of your own use of CSs?*

Ab: *'I feel very good because I make the listener understand what I was saying and ah make me feel comfortable and ah the strategy makes the conversation very interesting I mean that is very important about the use of CSs'.*

R: *Which strategy you prefer to use? Why?*

Ab: *'I think fillers because we make the other person interested. We make him feel that we are interested in what he is saying'. Also, paraphrasing I like to do it a lot because ah from a way it makes my language strong because I use another vocabulary to repeat what the speaker is saying and from the other way it makes him interested by listening to me'.*

R: *Have you found that the instruction of CSs useful?*

Ab: *'These strategies helped me to be confident and to rely on myself when I speak with other people in English'.*

R: *What did you learn from this programme?*

Ab: *I learned that strategies such as fillers, paraphrasing, facilitating and repairing are very useful to use in in the conversation and our daily life ah because we need them we can't speak without specific strategies'.*

R: *So, do you think that learning CSs helps you to be a good English speaker?*

Ab: *'Yes, it helped me a lot I am ah I've started using these strategies in my exams, when I am answering the teachers and I use it when I talk to ah foreigners outside the university I am using it a lot so I am grateful for that'.*

R: *Have you encountered any problems?*

Ab: *No, there used to be problems with vocabularies, sometimes you are facing difficulties with ah vocabularies that is it, but ah other kinds no.*

R: *Ok, Do you want to add something else?*

Ab: *No, I want to add that these strategies are very important to use, so you cannot think of English conversation without the use of such strategies or ah you are not considered as a good English*

speaker without using these strategies. These strategies help you to understand English and speak it more clearly in daily life.

***R:** Thank you very much for your participation in this interview.*

***Ab:** Thank you.*

Phase 2

Do you think that being with female students has any effect on you?

Speaker A: No, we do not contact with them even in real life.

Speaker B: Yes, it has an effect but in a good way. We took it as a challenge to see who is better and started to show off and it's good for both girls and boys to push ourselves to be better.

Speaker C: Yes, because I'm shy when I'm talking with girls.

Phase 3

Salem

***R:** I'd like to ask you about your personality do you think it has any influence on your choice of CSs?*

***S:** 'Yes, I always do my best and because girls were intelligent and smart I tried to be better than them, they push me forward that is my point'.*

***R:** Ok, do you think man and woman use or adopt different strategies because of their gender?*

***S:** 'Maybe, I don't know a lot about females, but I think they use different strategies or because women talk a lot so they use different strategies'.*

***R:** Ok, Do you think that age has any kind of effect on the choice of CSs?*

***S:** 'Age has another effect on me, if they older than me I' II try to be as in their age in mind by thinking as they think...*

***R:** So you take age into consideration.*

***S:** Yes, I take age into consideration. I consider using fillers or repetition with young and old people'.*

***R:** What is your expectation? After training on the use of CSs what is your expectation?*

***S:** May be in the future, if I get a job or if I interviewed I'll use some of CSs and that is to make the interviewer think that I am a good English language speaker.*

R: *Can you tell me which CSs you will use in such situation?*

S: *As I said before I will use fillers*

R: *That is because it gives you the time to think.*

S: *Yes, but may be in the future I will try to use another one.*

R: *So, what about the culture? Does culture have any effect on learner's choice of CSs?*

S: *Which culture?*

R: *For example, Libyan culture, in the class classroom or the political situation?*

S: *'Some teachers in some subjects make me feel that 'they try to dominate the classes, but I always try to break that by chatting and speaking e.g. asking questions. If I do not know what to say I ask for clarification and I use some examples to make the teacher/listener understand my idea'.*

R: *Do you think that your relationship with your teacher has some effect on your choice of CSs?*

S: *'Yes, what I like about this programme is the discussion at the end of every lesson and the exchange of information with the other students and the teacher. Mr. Edgard listens to us and that is really good'*

R: *Are you aware that CSs is part of the IELTS criteria of assessment?*

S: *No, I am not. I do not know.*

R: *Would like to add anything Salem.*

S: *No thanks.*

R: *Thank you very much.*

Abdurrahman

R: *Do you think that your relationship with your teacher has some effect on your choice of CSs?*

Ab: *'Yes, Mr. Edgard for example was very good and he taught us some CSs and how to use them probably such as fillers and topic avoidance and that is precisely what the subject is about'*

R: *I would like to ask you about the use of CSs, why do you think some CSs are instinctive?*

Ab: *The environment that you were raised in has some kind of effect on you and on the use of some CSs instinctively. When you grow up the language you use with your parents and neighbours helps you to develop a particular type of strategy.*

R: *Is it to do with age?*

Ab: *No.*

R: *Do men and women use different CSs because of their gender?*

Ab: *I do not know about girls, but for us as men we are using some strategies such as Topic avoidance, fillers, may be circumlocution, but for girls I do not know may be they like gasping hhhh.*

R: *What about the culture? Does culture have any effect on learner's choice of CSs? I know that culture is a general term, probably, Libyan culture, in the class classroom or the political situation?*

Ab: *'In the classroom it depends on the subjects, for example in our last training programme I mean language skills which is my favourite subject, I got to talk and to do what I want which makes it my favourite subject, but in Grammar it is boring because you cannot even talk'.*

R: *Are there any social or cultural restrains? Do you think that there are some things stop you for using one particular strategy or another.*

Ab: *May be the stress you get when you talk to others or when you are in a hurry and religion has some effect on you.*

R: *Are you aware that CSs is part of the IELTS criteria of assessment?*

Ab: *To be honest, I have no idea.*

R: *Would like to add anything Salem.*

Ab: *No, thank you.*

R: *Ok. Thank you anyway to be with us today.*

Imhemmed

R: *Do you think that being with girls has any kind of effect on you?*

I: *No, not exactly, in the classroom we are comfortable, we consider them as our sisters and we do not feel shy when we deal with them because they are part of the society the Libyan society.*

R: *Ok, take you back to the lesson which we had on the teaching of CSs, do you think that your relationship with your teacher has some effect on your choice of CSs?*

I: *'Since the start of studying here in this college I have no problem with the teachers. But the training programme helped me to get much information'.*

T: *Which strategy you prefer to use? Why?*

I: *'Most of the time I stay silent. So, I talk about topics which are important for me'.*

R: *Do men and women use different CSs because of their gender?*

I: *'Yes, of course, there is a big difference between men and women because girls 'sorry for that' are talking a lot and they talk non-sense and they prefer to talk about themselves e.g. she is good at this and that'.*

R: *Ok. Do you think that age has any kind of effect on the choice of CSs?*

I: 'Umm, I don't think so'.

R: Do you think that culture has any effect on your choice of CSs? For instance, Libyan culture, in the class classroom or the political situation.

I: 'Probably, traditions have some kind of effect on me when I talk with people'.

R Can you be more specific?

I: For example, when I talk for, with my parents, teachers or women I try to show some respect.

R: Are you aware that CSs is part of the IELTS criteria of assessment?

I: What do you mean?

R: Teachers and examiners use CSs in their testing e.g. to test speaking

I: No, I do not know about that um I do not know.

R: Do you want to add something else?

I: No, thanks.

R: Thank you very much.

Fatima

R: Do you think that your relationship with your teacher has some effect on your choice of CSs?

F: 'Yes, I might be somehow bias because I really like both the training programme and the teacher. Everything was fine, we learned to talk in different situations without being afraid of making mistakes ah and 'Mr. Edgard' presented his lessons in an interesting way'.

R: Do men and women use different CSs because of their gender?

F: 'I do not think so; in my opinion different situations acquire different strategies. So, if you ask the same question to a man or woman if he wants to avoid answering it, he will do the same thing applies to woman. Thus, it depends on the situation and not gender'.

R: What is about your personality? Does it have any effect on the choices of CSs?

F: 'Yes, some of the questions for me are something personal and I don't want talk about so I avoid them. Sometimes some of the questions are not that clear to me so I have little knowledge about them. So, I ask for clarification sometimes I use repetitions and so'.

R: Does culture have any effect on your choice of using CSs? For example, in general, in the class, the political situations or Libyan culture.

F: During Gaddafi regime I was young so, I did care much about politician, but now I care. Yes we have the chance to talk but I mean I don't care because politics is something boring and full of lies so I prefer to stay out of it.

R: Ok. Are there any culture restrains? Is there anything which might stops you from using one strategy or another?

F: Yes, of course, because there are some things I do not want to talk about or I know that if I talk about one thing I will be misunderstood so, I prefer to talk about things which might provoke people so, I avoid it as possible as I can.

R: Ok, is it to do with gender or your age or something else?

F: I do not know I mean we have thins ah what to say idea that woman should do this and not do that, it is in our culture even if I do not agree with that I have to live with that.

R: Are you aware that CSs is part of the IELTS criteria of assessment?

F: I've heard about IELTS, but I do not know about testing. I am a student and not a teacher.

R: Anything you want to add?

F: No, thank you

R: Thank you very much.

Aziza

R: May I ask you about the culture please? Do you think that culture has any effect on your choice of CSs? This might include, Libyan culture, in the class classroom or the political situation.

AZ: They have an effect on me, but not all of them, I do not know, but I think it is not about culture or traditions it is about my personality.

R: Ok, What about your personality tell me more about this?

AZ: 'Some people say that I am complicated person and I think that is right'.

R: Oh that is right, you think that are complicated!! OK, does this leads you to implement one particular strategy?

AZ: 'It depends on the situation, I use fillers most often'.

R: Do men and women use different CSs because of their gender?

AZ: Yeah,

R: Why, can you tell me more about this?

AZ: I think men always use strong words or language and they do not talk about or seek details in their conversation they prefer to talk straight and directly to their subject. But, for women they use a lot of strategies because they like to speak and maybe they try to be nice with others and understood. It is probably something to do with their personality trying to be sociable and nice.

R: Are you aware that CSs is part of the IELTS criteria of assessment?

AZ: Do you mean to use CSs in English exams

R: Yes.

AZ: No, not really. Sorry, I do not know.

R: It is alright. Anything you want to add Aziza?

AZ: No, thanks

R: Thank you very much.

Allya

R: Do you think that you use CSs instinctively? Which one?

Al: Yeah, it is part of my conversation and part of me and I think use fillers.

R: Ok, what about the culture, Libyan culture, classroom culture the society?

Al: Of course the environment has its effect on me and on my personality.

R: What about your personality?

Al: 'Um studying with boys um somehow affects me because I am a little bit shy and I am always afraid of making mistakes in front of them ah in such situations I think I use topic avoidance, but I do not have a problem with studying with girls'.

R: So, if you were with boy would you prefer to use certain strategies?

Al: I mean I have to show more respect when I am with boys.

R: So, do you think that man and woman use different CSs because of their gender?

Al: 'What I shall I say; as I said when I am with boys I have to know what I will say, but with girls because we know each other so I feel more comfortable with them'.

R: What about the instruction of CSs and the way the teacher presented the lesson during the training programme?

Al: I think Mr Ed was very good teacher you know, I mean he knows how to teach and the way he presented his material was very good and I have learned a lot of things from him.

R: Ok, what about the lessons themselves, were they well organised and were they clear and good?

Al: Yeah, because we learned many strategies and I think I feel that I am different from before I mean I did not know anything about them before we had the training programme, but now we know how to talk about different situations which you know and you do not know, it is very important.

R: Are you aware that CSs is part of the IELTS criteria of assessment? That teachers and examiners use CSs in their testing criteria.

Al: [laughter] ah I am a student, I do not know about exams, but in the future maybe

R: Yes, that is fine. Anything you want to add please?

Al: No, thanks

R: Thank you very much.

Selma

R: Do you feel that being with boys has any kind of effect on you?

Sel: Yes, some people {boys} make me feel very shy and that is because of their behaviour and sometimes they make me nervous.

R: Do you think man and woman use different CSs because of their gender?

Sel: 'I think they use the same strategies'.

R: Can you tell me about your personality?

Sel: 'Yes, I am very shy and sometime nervous especially in the classroom. Also when I meet strange people I got very shy at first then I got relax. So, maybe I use fillers and repetition strategies'.

R: What about the culture, the Libyan culture, in the classroom or political culture?

Sel: Some traditions make me change my behaviour and in other times get on with it and I feel relaxed.

R: Do you think that your relationship with your teacher has some effect on your choice of CSs?

Sel: 'Yes, some teachers do not explain their lessons very well, but regarding the training programme which we had it was wonderful and the teacher was very good. He used very good methods to explain his lessons and he made the lesson very clear to us'.

R: What about your age? Does your age have any effect on the choice of CSs?

Sel: No, I do not think age has anything to do with that.

R: What about gender?

Sel: As I said before, I think they use the same strategies.

R: Are you aware that CSs is part of the IELTS criteria of assessment? That teachers and examiners use CSs in their testing criteria.

Al: No, no ah exams ah I do not know.

R: Anything you would like to add Selma?

Sel: No thanks

R: Thank you very much.

International students (Phase 3)

Shomrky Mahmud (3rd year Electronics DMU, English originally from Somalia).

R: I would like to know about the use of CSs. Do you usually use them and which one you use most?

Sh: 'Yeah, I am aware of it and I use it sometimes I am not aware of it, but other times I do it purposely and there are occasions such as ah when I meet strangers, then umm I use less body language, but ah when I am with people I am comfortable with then I use more body language'.

R: In the classroom or college, do you think that your relationship with your teacher has some effect on your choice of CSs?

Sh: 'Yes, absolutely with my supervisors I treat them with respect, I show respect always listen to what they say and ah whatever instructions they give me. I do the best my ability and ah I don't use any slang words I use professional words I try to be professional with them'.

R: Ok, regarding the instruction, do you prefer lots or less instruction?

Sh: It depends on the subject, if the ah subject is difficult then of course I need more instruction, but once I become familiar with it I would become less. So, it depends on the situation.

R: Do you think that men and women use different because of their gender?

Sh: You mean men to men and women to women?

Sh: 'Of course there is much different when man you are more comfortable and hide nothing inside you, but when you speak with woman especially a stranger you would be more shy or talking to her and you look down'.

R: Ok, do you use CSs instinctively?

Sh: I use some of them instinctively and some I think about like the one when you ah paraphrasing a subject when I don't understand sorry when I understand the subject I want to repeat to the person to make sure he, we understand each other I use that knowingly with tension. There are tomes when I use fillers like unnecessary words like ah well, actually things like that, yeah when I need to think about what to say.

R: *Do you think that the personality of the learner has something to do with the use of CSs? Sh: May be, but to be honest I am not sure.*

R: *What is about the age of the learner?*

Sh: *'Yeah, probably, when you get older you use ah more of the repetition and ah because I speak with elderly I speak more loudly. Where, when you are with people of the same age of you, you understand each other more easily'.*

R: *Would you like to add something else?*

Sh: *There are some like body languages or ah other ways of communications and perhaps I am familiar with like eye contact or something like this. Yeah, in our society especially there is more eye movement, gestures things like that.*

R: *Again regarding the gender differences, do you think that boys and girls use different strategies?*

Sh: *I would say so yeah, I think in our society male use more body language, but I think women they use less, they talk verbally most of the time that is what I noticed.*

R: *Are you aware that CSs is part of the IELTS criteria of assessment?*

Sh: *I know about IELTS, but I do not about its mechanism because I'm a native speaker.*

R: *Thank you very much for been with us.*

Sh: *Thank you.*

Soheab *(Electronics Engineering, Bachelor DMU, Saudi).*

R: *I would like to know about the use of CSs. Do you usually use them and which one you use most?*

S: *'When you communicate with people you use strategies or skills whether this or not so, umm answering this question yes, we do sometimes use body language as you know'.*

R: *Do you think that they are instructive or normal?*

S: *Definitely, definitely they are natural and it depends on how to use them. So, if you use them with time [for some time] you want notice them they become natural.*

R: *Do you think that men and women use different because of their gender?*

S: *'Ah what can I say, I think yes, they use different strategies in daily life like ah as my friend said girls talk a lot, but men they like to speak less, few words, but with the same meaning. Maybe they use body language with it as long as they can like deliver the same message'.*

R: *Do you think that personality has something to do with your choice of using CSs?*

S: Yes, definitely I think so because you know it depends on your background and your ah life like ah how you grow up and the things you have been taught definitely affects your personality and your choices of the CSs. Umm some like background cultures they ah tend to teach their youths and their children like ah not to talk a lot so, it definitely affects your communication.

R: Regarding the culture especially you have come from the Middle East do you think that culture has any effect on your choice of CSs? For example, culture in general, in the classroom or political culture.

S: Honestly, I do not like to talk about politics, but ah maybe it has something to do with what to say and not to say ah I do not know.

Fatima 'I did care much about politician because politics is something boring and full of lies so I prefer to stay out of it'.

R: in the class room do you think that your relationship with your teacher has some effect on your choice of CSs?

S: 'Umm, yes, so just it is a matter of ah you know in our culture we have to show respect to elderly people or people who have knowledge that it is. We only have ah a gab with respect you know respect ah for the people who ah have knowledge'.

R: Do you prefer lots of instruction or few?

S: In our field engineering, you do not get lots of instruction. It is better to do something practical like labs. So, they give us few instruction and go and apply them. So, that is the thing we need practical than theoretical things.

R: Do you think that some factors such as the age has some effect on your choice of CSs?

S: Do you mean the age of the listener or the speaker?

R: Both.

S: 'Definitely yeah, if the speaker holds a conversation with elderly person, we have to speak slowly raise your voice and clearly so you can understand your talk. Similarly, if you talk with a child you have to speak in easy way so that you could be fully understood'.

R: Are you aware that CSs is part of the IELTS criteria of assessment?

S: 'I do not know about that, um I did it before I come to the UK, but ah I do not know about how they make it'.

R: Ok, thank you very much for being with us.

Mohammed Obaba (Computer System, MA DMU, Ivory coast).

R: Do you use CSs or did you use them before and which one you use most?

M: *'I've been teaching from origin, I mean I am a teacher from origin so, I can say yeah I am using a lot of body languages this kind of stuff because when you communicate with students generally you need to have ah a kind of body language that you use and as well I use I usually work with children so few body language that we used. Some of them are disable who then are not using proper words. I am not really 'really' professional in that things, but yeah ah it happened I used them in my work place ah even in daily life with people. You need to make people understand what you want to put across. Yeah, different strategies you can use such as lowering your voice or changing tone and we even use it different like umm what I am saying your voice tone try to fixture it because it is part of embellishment when you are reading Quran. The Quran is beautiful thing to read yeah, I am familiar with it yeah'.*

R: *Ok, do you prefer to use certain strategies with certain people for example, when you talk to your boss/supervisor?*

M: *No, it is normally I can say there is a common sense when you talk to ah your lecturer or friend you do not use the same kind of language it is a really evident. So, what we are trying to do ah when we're talking to people because we are students or talking to academic people like your lecturer or supervisor so you don't use things like slang, but it depends on the audience you are targeting. So, you change your body language accordingly and even work for people sometimes ah they are not able to talk because they don't have the ability like you and me. Yeah, sometimes we, you do this type of strategy. So, you can say it depends on this person you are communicating with you can use body language and everything.*

R: *Regarding the supervisors and lectures, do you prefer few instruction or lots of instruction in your classroom?*

M: *Ok, when I umm, I will put it in an academic level you use ah a formal language you do not ah talk to them, you talk to them with respect. We are from Africa and it is part of the way when we talk to people if I knew that people your lecturer or your teacher you need to be formal and umm be you have to address them in a very polite manner. It is part of how education is implemented it is really part of culture we really to implement it.*

R: *Do you think men and women use different strategies because of their gender?*

M: *'Umm, well, I think this is part of the umm the gender fall into categories as well. When you talk to lads and men I think you tend to use I can say the same umm strategy. I think in the same way as in academic level you are really formal when something is related to your work or research and sometimes it is informal, it become really a familiar thing because start work for years become really familiar when it is related to the work, the study become formal that the familiarity become as well are human being you can't be formal'.*

R: *Ok, let me ask you about some factors, do you think that the personality of the learner has some kind of effect on his choice of using CSs?*

M: Yeah, sometimes people tend to look at the personality, me normally I think that yeah look at your doctor or professor or the person you are talk to, you talk to them in a really formal way polite way. Yeah, and you don't address them like you are talking to you friend

R: Do you think that age has any kind of effect on the choice of CSs?

M: 'Yeah, the age as well it is part of the education impeded in our system in our body in our brains. When you talk to someone older than you or younger you don't address them in the same way, but you tend to be polite to people. I think the way you talk to people reflected your education and background'.

R: Do you think that culture has something to do with this?

M: Yeah, I think to me it is part of my personality because when I talk to people I look at ah umm normally I don't make discrimination between I can say man and woman it is not my thing like that, but you are trying to be really respectful when you are talking to someone else especially if someone you don't know, you are talking to him for the first time.

R: Do you think that the use of these strategies is instinctive?

M: Yeah, at the end of the day it become yeah because you have been practising and it become a nature. Yeah, it becomes a second nature to address people in a polite way. Yeah, it becomes part of you, of your family and personality. The way you address people yeah.

R: Do you think that your relationship with your teacher has some effect on your choice of CSs?

M: 'As far as I am concerned the CSs I use to interact with my lecturers and friends depend on different factors. My interactions with the lecturers are always formal communication types, that meaning the choice of the words, the vocabulary, the grammar all are chosen in such a way that I talk to them politely, with respect generally to their position'.

R: Are you aware Mohammed that CSs is part of the IELTS criteria of assessment?

M: 'As I said I was a teacher, I had my own maths exams and I knew about EILTS. It could be that they use CSs in IELTS or TOFOL testing criteria know about exams, but I am not use about that'.

R: Ok, do you want to add anything else?

M: 'I've just say that ah in my ah I mean in my study I am doing language processing it is the same way like what you are doing and I like to know anything that people umm using in their natural language processing because I've seeing people doing it in a conference they were demonstrating a few things. I was really interested because I put my focus on my course which is ah in technology, but I think ah the. I don't know I want to ask you if you are using any strategy related to natural language processing in your study'.

R: You can say yeah.

M: Ok.

R: *Thank you Mohammed.*

M: *I was a pleased to come and help you in your study, cause sometimes we try to help each other. As a Muslim brother I want really to help you. Jazak Allah'.*

R: *Thank you Mohammed.*

M: *Ok, Alsalam Allakum.*

Maroaf (undergraduate from Bangladesh)

R: *Can you tell me your name and your nationality please?*

M: *Yes, my name is Maroaf, I am studying Product design and I am from (Bangladesh)*

R: *Ok, nice to have you with us today.*

R: *Do you usually use CSs or are you familiar with them? Which one you use most?*

M: *Right, when I communicate I communicate on the internet using my profile using things like ah face to face and I try to do at all time like I am speaking in a friendly manner that is what I try to focus on when I communicate, being friendly as possible and nice.*

R: *Ok, is there any specific strategy you use?*

M: *Body language, sometimes I do put emphasis on certain words to show how I feel like ah for example if I want to say I am angry I would say I am angry (he put stress on the first syllable), put emphasis on certain words. Also, ah moving your eyebrows goes down and back up, to convey what you try to say you ah let the curve of the dip if your eyebrows down it means that you are say and if it is up it is conveying certain aspects on how you feel.*

R: *Do you think that your relationship with your teacher has some effect on your choice of CSs?*

Maroaf: *I noticed that with my teachers I speak in a soft voice always in a good manner. With my friends I tend to speak a lot more comfortably. There is a difference rent between the two i.e. a friendly approach with teachers and normal approach with friends. I realized this contrast shows that ah it does have an effect on my choice of CSs.*

R: *In the class room do you prefer lots of instructions or few?*

M: *I prefer few instructions because I like simple things if it is too complex I get bet nervous. Yeah I like few instructions simple instruction would be ah preferred.*

R: *Ok, so do you think that men and women use different because of their gender?*

M: *'Man and woman say ah I really have no idea. It could depend on ah their position like where they are sitting or the situation, if they maybe unmarried or if they married they could use different strategies'.*

R: *Do you think that age has any kind of effect on the choice of CSs?*

M: *'Yes, I think so. In my country for example Bangladesh education is not well established as in here. So, they may not know the fundamentals how to talk to a person. So if you come cross they might not like ah speak in a correct manner, but if they were educated they might know how to communicate probably'.*

R: *So in this case you think that the culture or surrounding might affect people's choice!*

M: *'Culture could do, ah certain religions like ah in Bangladesh Islam is the main religion and ah teaches us kindness and being friendly and treating your neighbour in a friendly manner correct manner'.*

R: *What about personality?*

M: *Personality has influence on the way I communicate. I try to like ah keep myself for myself and I'm also a shy person and I'm also quiet person so that ah might have an influence on how I communicate.*

R: *Have you ever felt that you were let down by a classmate or teacher?*

M: *Yeah, sometimes I feel let down; I try to fight the negative force that comes so I try to fight and get ah my rights.*

R: *Are you aware Mohammed that CSs is part of the IELTS criteria of assessment?*

M: *I do know about IELTS, but the use of CSS in the testing criteria um no , I do not know.*

R: *Ok, would like to add anything else Maroaf?*

M: *Yes, I wish you all the best and I happy that I did some help.*

R: *Thank you very much for your help.*

Omar (undergraduate studying computer engineering, Kurdish)

R: *I'd like to ask you about CSs. Do you use them and which one you use most?*

O: *I do not know about them. I only communicate with people here in the university, in the streets and on the internet, but I do not know about CSs.*

R: *Do you think that men and women use different because of their gender?*

O: *No*

R: *Do you know why?*

O: *Because we were not given the chance to have a conversation with them. Even in real life, we are not really given a lot of opportunity to deal with ladies.*

R: Do you think that your relationship with your teacher has some effect on your choice of CSs?

O: Certainly, I am trying to be in some kind of friendly manner, to be ah respectful. Also when I am in a lecture or with my supervisor I try to do the same thing also I try to keep consistent with everyone.

R: Do you think that your personality has any kind of effect on you when you communicate with other people?

O: I do not know. I'm shy person and I prefer to stay with myself most of the time.

R: Do you think that your relationship with your teacher has some effect on your choice of CSs?

O: As I said before, I do not know about CSs, but I always respect my teachers and try to be nice with them.

R: Are you aware Mohammed that CSs is part of the IELTS criteria of assessment?

O: I know about IELTS, but I do not know if they use CSs in exams.

R: Ok, would like to add something Omar?

O: No, thanks. I wish you the best in your study

R: Thank you Omar.

Phase 4 : Interview questions posted to the students by email

Salem

R. Are men less likely using interruption strategies than women?

S. No, in my opinion I think most men do not use the interruption strategies. They just wait until the speaker finish

R. Would you be less likely to interrupt someone and use interruption strategies?

S. I probably would use them when I feel that the speaker will talk about another topic or to correct him/her.

R. What are the short term and the long term impact of teaching CSs strategies on you?

S. For the long term impact the students will have the ability to make interesting conversation and to know when and how to cut the conversation politely.

The short term impact will give the student the ability to continue the conversation and both the speaker and the listener will pay more attention.

Abdurrahman

R. *Are men less likely using interruption strategies than women?*

A. *I think that women use interruption strategy more often than men. In our society, women don't go out a lot and when they do they have a lot to share and they are not ready to listen.*

R. *Would you be less likely to interrupt someone and use interruption strategies?*

A. *Yes, because I think we should let the person talking finish his idea before we say what we think about what he said.*

R. *What are the short term and the long term impact of teaching CSs strategies on you?*

A. *The short term impact of is using CSs is to help you become a good student and the long term impact is being able to communicate properly.*

Fatima

R. *Are women less likely using interruption strategies than man?*

F. *Maybe, there are a lot of women that I know use that more than men. So, I think both sides they use it.*

R. *Would you be less likely to interrupt someone and use interruption strategies?*

F. *Yes, if I have to say something I would use it to avoid embracing other people.*

R. *What are the short term and the long term impact of teaching CSs strategies on you?*

F. *The short term impact of teaching CSs is that it helps me to have positive engagement with other students at the college.*

I think that the long impact on me will be that training on the use of CSs helped me to develop my confidence and self-independence and communicate effectively.

Appendix J

Communicative Tasks

Pre-task activity

Talk about your experience during the Libyan revolution. Share your experience among yourselves.

- 20 (100%) students attended the session that lasted for 1 hr. and 30 minutes.
- An assessment activity to establish the students' present knowledge and utilization of the identified communication strategies was conducted.
- The students were distributed into 5 groups. Four groups with 4 members and 1 group with 6 members. Such grouping was brought about by gender consideration. In the middle of the class two students asked for permission to leave before conducting the task.
- The cooperating teacher initiated the discussion about the Libyan Revolution with one group. Students were encouraged to freely share their experience among themselves. The researcher intently observed and recorded the discussion. The discussion lasted for 15 minutes.
- The same topic was given to the other groups (control group). However, the discussion was done without any intervention from the cooperating teacher. The students liberally conveyed their ideas among themselves that ran for 15 minutes for one group and 10 minutes for the other group. The researcher did the same documentation for the said conversations.

Post-task activity

Some western visitors are coming to the faculty. Your teacher asks you to think about where to take them for a tour. Tell him/her about the different places in your city/country and then decide which one would be the best.

Appendix K

CS 1 Topic Avoidance

In presenting the first strategy which was ‘Topic avoidance’, the teacher employed an inductive approach. When asked about situations calling for the use of a topic avoidance strategy, the students shared the following responses:

The questions are too sensitive or personal

The manner of asking was rude

There was a lack of understanding the question or idea

Bad mood of interlocutor

The expressions elicited for topic avoidance were:

“Sorry, I don’t have an idea.”

“I rather not talk about it.”

“I really shouldn’t talk to strangers.”

“Sorry, but try asking someone else.”

Using modelling, the teacher further explained that such a strategy is not only used to evade an answer but also to digress from the topic or redirect the conversation. The following expressions were used:

“What do you think?”

“How about you?”

Each student was then asked to choose a partner and present a short exchange on a given topic using topic avoidance strategy.

1. Warm up

First, learners need to know some expressions they can use to shift to a different topic.

Example:

Oh, by the way... What do you think about ()?

Talking about ()... Did you know (that)?

Then, learners will be told that no matter what their question is, they must keep on talking on a given topic.

Example:

A. Do you believe in God?

B. I am not sure. Talking about God, did you see [The Davinci code] last Sunday?

Kehe & Kehe (1994 cited in Dörnyei 1995)

2. Students did more *communicative strategies* which gave them more opportunities to practice.

Kehe & Kehe (1994 cited in Dörnyei 1995)

Dörnyei and Thurrell (1991)

Fillers:

Short structures	Almost phrases
- Well...	- As a matter of fact....
- Actually..	- To be quite honest...
- You know...	- (Now) let me think...
- I mean...	- I'll tell you what...
- in fact...	- <u>If</u> ./I.. see what you.../ <u>I</u> ...mean....
- Frankly...	- let me put it this way...
- I wonder...	- How shall I put it...
- Hang on...	- What I would say is...
- I see...	- what I'm trying to say is....
- I/You mean....	- (Now) where shall I start...
- Um.../Er...	- The best way I can answer that is..

(Dörnyei and Thurrell 1992)

Divide learners into groups of threes; each group add one filler to the dialogue. Each filler must be used only once.

1. Warm up

Nonsense dialogues:

Learners asked to create short nonsense dialogues which are entirely based on fillers. Names of cities can be used to compose these dialogues. For example:

A: You know, I thought maybe London.

B: Well, I see what you mean, and don't get me wrong-that's very Chicago-but actually, as a matter of fact, I was thinking more along the lines of Montreal ... if you see what I mean.

A: Really? But that's Istanbul!

Adopted from Dörnyei (1995)

2. This was followed by more *communicative* activity.

Asking for help

1. Warm up:

A: London is the capital

B: Sorry, can you repeat this last word again . . .

or Sorry, I couldn't hear the word after 'the' . . .

A variation on this involves B enquiring about the meaning of a word, for example:

B London is the capital of Great Britain.

A Sorry, what does 'capital' mean?

or What do you mean by 'capital'?

Adopted from Dörnyei and

Thurrell (1991)

2. Students did another *communicative* activity.

Appendix L

A: Examples of CSs' discussions implemented in the current study

Repetition strategy: (Students own conversation)

S1: Have you heard about the massacre in Connecticut?

S2: A massacre, where did you, where did you say it happen?

S1: In a school in Connecticut. A man walked in a school and killed 26.

S2: That's *ah*, that is a big number. Is it a forty six elementary school or secondary school?

S1: *Um* actually, I don't quite remember, but I think it is *ah* an elementary school.

Facilitating strategy: (Students own conversation)

S1: Hi, I am going to talk to you about my family.

S2: Really!

S1: Yes, we are about *ah* 9 *ah* 2 parents and *ah* 7 brothers and sisters.

S2: Interesting! *Umm*, [nodding the head].

S1: Actually, *ah* we *ah* we are, I love them *ah* we always come and eat together and *ah* we go to picnic together always together.

S2: You help them through.

S1: Yes, we help them *ah* or trying to solve his problem.

S2: I'd like to know how *ah* you treat your little brothers?

S1: Oh, they are actually, I don't talk to them so much, but from time to time.

S2: Why?

S1: Because I am very busy in the college and I have to *ah* study and do my research.

S2: Oh, [agreeing] how it is going in the college?

S1: It is good. In my family I and next brother to me we don't talk to *ah* each other.

S2: You do not talk to each other! Why?

S1: We do not meet, he has work and I have the college, we do not meet never.

S2: You are very busy man.

S1: *Umm*, yes.

S2: I can see that.

S1: Yes, also they *ah* actually my family improved my personality if you know.

S2: Really.

S1: Yes, [body language] because *ah* when I look to my and trying to understand the communication or the relation between us, I can say that we I'll, I'll make my family when I am a man, be a man.

S2: Make your own [family] you mean!

S1: *Umm*, [agree], like, like this family or better.

S2: That is good, that's it.

S1: That's it.

Seeking Opinion strategy: (Students own conversation)

A: Hi, how life is with you two girls?

Both: it's Ok.

A: What' are you doing?

B: We are reading a book.

C: We are reading a book, actually a guide book *umm* would you like to *ah* join us?

A: It is sound amazing, what is it about?

B: It is about Al-hamra Palace, it is a beautiful place.

A: What's the name again? Was it the *ah*?

C: Al-hamra Palace, a huge old building.

A: Oh yes, I remember, it *ah* a place *ah* in Spain right, isn't it?

B: Yes, in Spain *umm* last *ah* in my last holiday I go there and I really enjoy it.

C: It is really beautiful place.

A: Talking about *ah* spending holidays, now I am thinking where *ah* I spend my holiday. D o you have any idea where *ah* can go?

C: You should go there it's really beautiful place and forget spending your time there.

B: Yeah, she has a picture, you can show it.

C: Yeah, you can see it.

A: It is beautiful, it is amazing. So, *umm* you *ah* enjoy your holiday there right!

C: Yeah, it is really beautiful.

A: Ok, *ah* I'll think of it.

B: Good.

Talk about one of the following topics and use seeking opinion strategy

- next holiday
- mobile phone
- interesting hobby
- new car
- book to read

B: *Other examples of prompt cards used by students in the two groups in the two groups to ensure that they used the same topics and cover all CSs.*

Directions You will have to talk about the topic for one or two minutes.

You have one minute to talk about what you're going to say.

Talk about your family

You should say

How many are they

What your parents do

What you enjoy doing as a family

And explain how your family improve your personality.

Directions You will have to talk about the topic for one or two minutes.

You have one minute to talk about what you're going to say.

Talk about your friend

You should say

Who your friend is / What your friend does

What you enjoy doing together

Why you like your friend

And explain how a friend can influence your personality your personality.

Directions You will have to talk about the topic for one or two minutes.

You have one minute to talk about what you're going to say.

Talk about your yourself

You should say

What your personality is

What you like and dislike

Why activity your do

And explain who influence you to become who you are now.

Appendix M

Table: A the differences in the use of CSs at the same proficiency levels by male and female LL

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum				
		Source of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Gender	Omission	.001	12.802	1	12.802	12.227
	Comprehension check	.004	11.511	1	11.511	8.488
	Other-repair	.401	853	1	.853	.707
	Use of fillers	.034	5.652	1	5.652	4.554
	Over explicitness	.003	7.910	1	7.910	8.875
	Guessing	.053	4.035	1	4.035	3.776
	Circumlocution	.021	4.298	1	4.298	5.371
	Asking for Clarification	.019	2.116	1	2.116	5.545

Kaivanpanah et al. (2012)

Table: B illustrates types and frequency of CSs

Non-linguistic means:	32%
Paraphrase:	23%
Fillers and gambits:	23%
Borrowing:	7%
Appeal for assistance:	5%
Avoidance:	4%
Prefabricated patterns:	2%

Shih and Yang (2008)

Table: C illustrates task and the choice of CSs

Strategy type	Picture story		Description		Conversati on	
Avoidance strategy	160	61.8%	7	38.5%	4	31.8%
Achievement strategy	99	38.2%	23	61.5%	16	68.2%
Total	259	100%	00	100%	70	100%

Fernández Dobao (2001)

Appendix N

The English day

The English day

SA: One of the activities that we do every year is ED.

SB: Sorry, I did not understand what that ED stands for.

SC: I mean too. Can you describe it? What does it stand for? It is the first time I hear that word.

SA: May be he [SD] can tell us about it.

SD: I think ED is ah one event ah where many students ah interact with teachers 'the members of staff', ah start to organise many things like ah singing acting and stuff like that.

SA: I see, I've seen students acting and singing the other day.

SC: Are you talking about English day? [Gesture]

SB: Yes, that is English day [nodding his head]

SA: : Yes, English day is ah an even that organised annually and we have so many great events held ah by teachers and students and it is opportunity to know each other in their way and I believe that ah you guys participated in some of these activities.

SC: Yeah!

SA: Can you tell us more about it? [Question to SB]

Interruption

SC: Last year I had the opportunity to ah witness it and you know some students were standing on the stage ah acting in front of many audience.

Interruption

S B: Part of it was drama {subject}, ah I participated in a drama and it was awesome.

SC: Yeah! [Gesture] I participated too. It was a drama or play about a post man who was cooperative by criminals and things went the other way round [Smiled].

SB: Yeah! It was interesting.

SC: But it was my first time to participate in a drama {play}. I was really afraid to be on the stage.

S A: I believe it is called ah stage fright, yes and by the way it is ah common and almost that everyone ah who does the same thing what I mean is standing in front of the audience for first time it is really gets you. They start to become ah afraid nerves and confused so, it is really normal for all of us. Isn't that right?

SD: Yeah

SA: {he talked to SD} you told me last time about you ah friend who experienced the same thing.

SD: Yeah! He was afraid on for being on the stage for the first time, but after that ah he started to you know act and sing.

SB: Yeah! That feeling is gradually starts to get away [nodding his head].

SA: Yes, I agree with you, and do not forget that the presence of friends as well as those are familiar with [performing] and all the faces around you are really helpful in terms of motivating your spirit and ah you get more, it is the experience ah we take with us in our memory.

SC: But don't forget that they are interesting activities

SB: Yeah

SC: I mean ah singing (clarifying to others remove)

Interruption

SD: Poetry (smiling and pointed to SB)

SB: Yeah! There was a lot of poetry reciting.

Interruption

SA: Sorry, what was the word?

SB: it is poetry reciting, many students recited poetry

SA: By students (smiling)

SB: Yeah, there were students acting and ah there was something else.. 'Interruption'

SC: Another interesting issue is ah time, whether you have time to participate and ah rehearsal the exams were at the door. It was all the way before exams.

SA: Besides the problem of time was there something that you have faced?

SB: I think besides the short period of time for practicing and rehearsal, we had a lot of ah I mean to work with people [Preparation]. It was amazing experience,

SA: Interesting, that is a positive point that adds to it.

SD: I agree with you however, the English day is ah a good chance to ah I mean to get with teachers in a very very academic way.

SC: I see what you mean, but once a year won't be enough I mean each time we meet it would be better than one time.

SA: Brilliant, I completely agree with him. I believe that all ah the energy and capacity that we and the rest of our class mates and the other students [in the English department] have could not ah be ah I mean ... 'interruption'

SD: Protect you!

SA: Yes, it is like you are in a small box that would put pressure on us and make us as so stressful. So, once we have it repeated for ah twice or three times for each activity it will make ah a lot easier for us.

SD: I agree with this in some points and disagree with others. I think ah putting us in ah a small box will make it more pres.. ah pressure and will not get so positive things, but I only suggest that ah studying subjects like 'Drama' and 'Novel' help us to perform on the stage and work as a team work.

SA: I believe what you are trying to say is that a more practical ah application is applying through the subjects therefore, opens the windows for us to practice the drama [play] and those kinds of things. Is that right?

SD: Yes, even this practice ah help us in ah ..

SC: Abilities.

SD: In our abilities.

SC: I have a question for all of you, are you planning to participate this year in this event?

SB: Of course, I am first of all ah I am sure that participating in drama [play] has a lot of fun.

SC: What about you SA?

SA: Uh, well, for me it is hard to tell now. I am always trying to get the opportunity and regard it as a chance of perspectives.

SD: Actually, for me I totally agree with the idea.

SC: Do you want to hear my idea about that?

* *"All the students said yes and smiled"*

SC: I'd love to work before the audience, but behind the stage to help other people.

SA: That is a lot of work.

SC: You know, when you talked about stage fright I am suffering from this. When they asked me to participate in the drama I tried to get rid of it, but I couldn't.

SA: Thank you every one for being with us.

Appendix O

Participant Consent Form

Researcher: Yaseen Abdulgader Hmaid, PhD student, School of Education, University of Leicester, K.

Dear

As part of my doctoral research, funded by the Libyan Government Higher Education Commission, I am investigation Libyan English language learners' communication strategies. I wish to invite you as one of the participants in the above mentioned research study. Your participation in the study is of immense importance to the success of the study and could result in our greater understanding and possible improvement of students' communication strategies.

The research will be conducted respecting your rights, interests and dignity in conformity with rules and regulations of the British Educational Research Association (BERA), Revised Ethical Guidelines (2004). Any information given by you will be used for research purposes only, will be reported with utmost integrity and objectivity and will be treated with the greatest respect of privacy, confidentiality and anonymity. You will not be identifiable, directly or indirectly, in the final outcome of the study, which will be in the form of a thesis.

This is what will happen in this study:

1. Classroom observation

The observation involves some students being audio recorded while they are doing group work at the beginning and end of the course, and every second week during the course (as part of the regular lesson). It will help me to understand how students manage different speaking opportunities. I may also take written notes occasionally of what I observe.

2. Questionnaire

In week 1 and week 8 you will be asked to complete a questionnaire. It will include questions about your spoken English.

3. Interview

You may be asked to participate in an interview about what has happened in your English speaking class. It will take about 10-15 minutes. The interview will be in English and information will be tape recorded.

As a participant you are free to withdraw from the study at any time if you wish to. Should you agree to take part in this research study, please complete the following and sign at the bottom.

Thank you,

Yaseen Hmaid, Principal Investigator

CONSENT

I have read the information above, and I agree to participate in this study

Name _____ Signature _____ Date _____

Appendix P

The whole conversation of the Pre and Post-speaking Tasks

1. Pre-speaking task activity of the experimental group:

Conflict in Libya

A: Ok. I live in Ras Saeh. Towards the ...um...when the revolution starts ...um...we feel nervous and afraid because ...um...bad...um...days and unexpected days in our life...um...be...
Interruption by the second speaker (B)

B: Have you stayed home or you left?

A: Yes, we stayed at home all the time. We didn't move the house. Um...always we listened to the news and ...um...watched what happened in Libya ah ah and also ...um Interruption by the ... speaker

C: Have any refugees come to approach or you don't have?

A: No, no, there was no one. We stayed in our house and there was no one came to us. Um..., but I feel that it's Interruption How do you feel?...um...bad days and ..um... maybe we discovered that ...ah...Libyan people ...ah...help...ah...help each other and ...um...

C: Do you miss...ah...the days of the war?

A: Yes, because...ah... I miss my friends. I didn't know...um...anything about them.

C: No...you...um...no you got my question the wrong way. I meant, do you miss...ah... the revolution, the days...ah...

A: No. Of course, no

C: Ok.

A: I want always to stay...um...in same with...um...peace. I want to...ah...what ...um... laughs and suddenly stopped.

D: Really. It was good days because we discovered many things...ah...good things...ah...that Libyan people ...um...have and...um...bad days because we lost many (many repeated) of the people...um...

C: That you love?

D: Not...um...I do not know them.

C: Ok, so those people who died.

D: Yes...*ah*...

A: Ok. What about you?

C: For me I live in an area called Aramla, so safe area by the way butIt's close to the sea but ...*ah*...I...I...feel sometimes it's the farthest to the ...*ah*...where the war came. *Ah*...but for a while we stayed at my aunt's home because...

A: It's safe...

C: Yes, it is. My grandmother was so afraid...*ah*...for my father because he was her only son. She was not gonna let any harm gets him and although Aramla is a safe place but...*um*...we don't have ...*ah*...I'm not going to say it. We have neighbours but it's not like my aunt where my aunt is...*um*...

A: Social?

C: Wait, they are our relatives. We have relatives. They are my cousins, my various cousins. So we know them. We have ...*um*...

A: Yeah...

C: Yes, we know them and the area is most safe like that. Beside my aunt has a basement so...*ah*.. with the ...*er*...that's what we all think about. *Um*... for me...*um*... although it was a bloody, all that but I think of it as I'm not gonna say enjoyable or something cause there was a lot of blood but it was an experience that I learned a lot from.

D: yes, what you learn?

C: I learn, I can say that...I mean there are some moments where I miss right now. You know...*um*...feeling of support of people.

D: You were supporting each other?

C: Yes, you know a lot of times there were people coming to my house.. *ah*.. to_our_house and say that...*ah*...asking for money. People that they don't even know...but just so you know this feeling was very great. Now these days after it...*um*... a lot of things were lost. For now, I can see that there's a lot of selfishness and a lot of robbery, a lot of killing over nonsense. You know ...

B: Yes, in the previous revolution, people...*um*...feel others...*ah*...they asked them if he wants something.

C: I mean my relationship with my dad was tightened because I remember that I go downstairs...I...*ah*...I see him...I saw him watching the people...*ah*...so I watched with him. He will tell me...he would tell me about the bad day, about his past...

A: About the ruler in the past?

C: No, you know he would tell me a lot about him. You know before the revolution I didn't really know my dad. And that's true and I always say that my relationship with my dad is not that strong, but...*ah*...during the revolution I got to know him because we spent a lot of time with each other. I mean...*ah*...we didn't go to sleep until 5 or 6 watching TV and keeping updates especially in the first two months. So I am happy ..*ah*.. my relationship with my father is strength at this time.

A: Strong.

B: Really, I was surprise from Muammar Gaddafi. I mean...*um*...I know...*um*...that...I knew one thing that he is good person and ...*ah*...make Libyan free. When ...*um*...it started the revolution...*um*...*ah*...I started to know many disaster things he did interruption by the speaker

C: Yeah, many disasters that he did. I was surprised also

B: Yes, we didn't know that he was bad person like this.

Yes

B: So what stop what did you learn?

E: *Uh* what interruption

C: Ok, where you from?

E: Ah...I live in Qasr Ahmed...*ah*...when the *a ah* the start of the revolution...*ah*... the start of the revolution in the house but when *ah*. the hit the rocket *ah*.. when the...*ah*...late the in the ..*ah*.. (She might want to say revolution)

C: You told me the sea. Yeah?

E: Yes...*ah*... because very difficult the life ...*ah*.. the life in the ..*ah*.. Qaser very difficult.. *ah*.. any person ..*ah*.. the life in Qaser Ahmed ..*ah*.. you know...*ah*... and [she stops for a while]

C: She gets emotional.

E: Yeah...and...*ah*...when I go to the...*ah*...my...*ah*...uncle and aunt in the Benghazi. I missing in the life and...*ah*

D: During the revolution, did you travel to Benghazi?

B: No, me ..*ah*..but my aunt and uncle..*ah*...the family...*ah*...wait...*ah*

C: Not you?

E: Not me...*ah*...live in the sea...*ah*

D: Then where did you move or...*ah*...return to your house?

B: No...because very difficult return to the house...*ah*...the rocket.. *ah*.. all the...*ah*

D: Did you move to other place or stay? Did you move to...*ah*...other place?

E: Yes...*ah*...there is.. *ah*.. (She asked another student about the name of a place in Arabic then she continued) the Zarouk...*ah*...very comfortable and...*ah*...our friend change the place...*ah*...very good because...*ah*...now the hate rocket...*ah*...in the Zarouk.

A: Ok. What about you?

S/D: I live in ..*ah*.. Kerzaz and you know absolutely what happened in Kerzaz. Absolutely intensifying memories in this area when the revolution starts the army of Gaddafi came to Kerzaz and start killing everyone.

A: And so?

S/D: Yes... and destroyed everything...*ah*...by every kinds of guns.

C: *Um*...have you left and where did you live? Umm...I think that you left your place but where did you go?

S/D: In the first time we go to the south of Tumina...and then we go to Eidr. *Ah*...we stayed there for...*ah*...one month. I think...*ah*...with our relatives.

A: Anyone of your brothers was killed or martyred?

S/D: Yes, you know...you mean the revolutionists? Interruption by another speaker yes Yes I have my ..ab brother and I have a martyr of course...*ah*...my cousin...

A: What did you feel at that time?

S/D: Oh...I feel so...so upset.

C: *Ah*...is it ok if you told us ..*um*.. how did how did you feel when you told.. *ah*. when they told you about your cousin?

S/D: Completely terrifying memories. I just don't want to...*ah*...

C: Remember?

S/D: ...to think about it.

C: I understand that.

D: *Um*...the armies of Gaddafi...*um*...destroyed everything that they faced and in ..*aa*.. in ..*aa*.. Kerzaz. I'm talking about my area with what I see, what I saw...*ah*...

C: Do you remember the times how lots of houses looked?

S/D: *Ah*...kind of destroyed.

C: Have you returned now or do you live...*ah*...with someone else?

S/D: With some students.

C: Have your bedroom...*ah*...got destroyed.

D: No... for the good luck it hasn't so much destroyed...*ah*

A: It's fine. That's the most important thing.

C: Does anyone remember the time where there is a lot of food left a lot of food missing I mean there is not enough onion and that kind of.

A: Yes, especially ..*aa*.. at the first. I didn't find anything, any kind of vegetable.

C: Yeah...I feel so hungry {laugh}.

A: Yeah...I eat all the time {laugh} .

C: You knew before the revolution I didn't really care about bananas, but after that...*ah*...I miss it.

A: Yeah...ok.

2. Pre-speaking task activity of the control group:

Conflict in Libya

Malak: Everyone had listened about Libyan revolution and *ah* also everyday had experience about in the revolution. So, I will *ah* start with Wejdan to talk about her experience in the *ah* war.

Wejdan: Ok, *umm* I will talk about my experience. It stated when *ah* my father run away from Sirt in *ah* the 19th of February. He was working with Gaddfi army, he came home I remember very very afraid he *ah ah* he ask us he asked us to not open the door because *umm* he was thinking that the army will be come and catch us. We *ah* stayed at home in that day and *ah* he goes with the rebels and *ah* he fight the army, he was picked their phone calling the *ah* government and *ah* they ask him to go back to Katiba [brigade] Hamza', {pause, Hamza ayah in Arabic}. But, he didn't go *umm* he stay with the rebels and fight with them. Then he *umm*

Asma: {another student helped her} injured

Wejdan: Yeah, he injured in *ah* Dafniya. He injured in his neck, then he travelled to Tunisia *ah* to do the *ah* operation and he came back. The doctor told him 'you will lose your sound, but now it is ok.

Asma: How did he travel to Tunisia? Did he travel by see in a small ship or?

Wejdan: No, he travelled *ah*[interruption].

Hala: In difficult circumstances, still the army, I mean that difficult..

Wejdan: Yeah still the army in the *ah* city and they *ah* fight us and *ah* yeah, he go to, he went to Tunisia and he came back. *Umm* he came *ah* I think he is ok now, he have a problem in *ah* his neck because he lose *ah* ... [stopped]

Asma: The sound!! {Suggest}

Wejdan: Yeah, he lose *ah* a vocal cod, but *ah* yeah I think it is OK. They make they made the operation and he is ok now.

Malak: OK, *ah* well I will ask Fatima about *ah* about *ah* her experience in the war, well *ah* Fatima *ah* if you have anything to add!

Fatima: Whatever I said I know that whatever I said about the revolution won't describe how grateful [horrible] thing it was. I mean maybe I don't have enough experience to talk about *ah* much experience. I haven't lived as other people lived or something like that, but I know it was really great thing that *ah* changed the way we think and *ah* you can talk about *ah* some *ah*, {pause}, [interruption].

Malak: OK, did you leave home during the war or *ah*?

Fatima: No, we stated in our area, it is safe place and *ah* the people from other areas in Misurata *ah* came to this aria, yeah we did not leave our home, but some people came to our home and stated with us *ah* because they were in *ah* dangerous places.

Malak: Yeah, Fatima like me ..pause... I was *ah* I remember during the war I stated at home and *ah* my uncle and *ahh* my father's friends was coming to us because *ah* as you said *ah* my area is *ah* the peace, the safe place in Misurata. So, *ah* I remember in the *ah* war *ah* I was *ah* preparing a lot of things.

Fatima: What about *ah* what about me about your feeling? I will ask you all of you about your feeling in the revolution? How did you feel, brave, crying or shouting?

Malak: Yeah, sometimes I was very afraid about *ah* the people. Sometimes I cry....[interruption].

Fatima: Who Died?

Malak: yeah, my uncle was injured [interruption].

Fatima: even my uncle got injured in the war. He is now, still to this moment *ah* get curing in Italy.

Malak: OK, as Fatima said that *ah* her uncle injured in the war also my uncle was injured in the war and *ah* he was go [went] to Germany and *ah* he *ah* still there until now [Interruption]

Yeah, *ah* my uncle was *ah* injured in his leg and in his *ah*

Hala: In his arm

Malak: Yeah, in his arm and in his leg and in his *ah* stomach also in his *ah* ear. pause Well, I will ask Fatima if ah you want to add anything.

Fatima: Well. I will talk about my brother, he *ah* was with ah fighting in Dafniah yeah, *ah* he was injured in his arm and in his leg then he was travelled to Tunisia. He stayed about not actually maybe one week and he came back then he goes to Malisia and stayed for many months there and *ah* the doctors overthere didn't do any ah anything for him and ah he came back.

Malak: In which month your bother was injured?

Fatima: I can't *ah* remember, I don't know, but he *ah* he injured in Al-Dafniya umm.

Asma: like my father.

Hala: Did they offer him another place?

Fatima: Yes, even injured in Bani Walid in his eyes and ah neck and leg and he is now in Tunisia. Insha-Allah he will go to Spain, but we don't know when [laugh].

Fatima: Ask me ask me [laugh].

Malak: I'll ask you if ah during the war if you prepared anything for the aah

Hala: Rebels.

Malak: Yeah.

Fatima: Yes, *ah* sometimes my brother asked us to cook food for his ah friends yeah in his Katiba especially in *ah* in Ramadan [laugh].

Hala: I will ask you, in which Katiba your brother is?

Fatima: Fursan Misurata.

3. Post-speaking task of the experimental group:

A western visitor to Libya

A: Hello girls. I want to ask you a favour; do you have any thoughts on tourism? *Ah* there is this Australian who will come in few days and I'm not sure where to take her. *Um* do you have *um* do you know any special place that you can advise me to take her to?

B: May be he wants to start with *um* [interruption]

A: She is, she is a female.

B: Oh, she is, maybe she wants to start with shopping, to go shopping. What's your opinion?

A: May be

B: To see our shops

C: As a matter of fact, if she is a girl, of course she wants to go shopping.

A: Yes.

D: interesting!

A: yeah

C: There are many shops here.

B: And *um*, I think it is different from their shops, the material, and every thing.

A: You know, how shall I put it *ah* I want to show her something unique which she can not find in Australia.

D: Yes

A: Something she can remember when she goes back.

D: You can also, *um* take her to 'Leptis Magna' there is *um* an ancient building and, *um* its location is on the *um*, near to sea and *um* the scene is really beautiful.

A: That's great! Yes interesting!

D: So, it'll be very unique.

B: Maybe, she likes to take photos to *um* remember this, *umm*,

A: Yes, of course, she will take a camera with her.

C: To show these photos to her parents or partner.

D: Maybe, *ah* he can, she can encourage them to visit Libya.

A: Yes, we'll get tourists; we'll get a lot of tourism.

E: What about.. *ah*, Nafosa Mount.

D: Mountains

E: Yes, mountains, in west, there is, are many of them, beautiful places.

A: Really?

D: Yes, sure.

E: And, *um*, there are ...pause.. many of umm what's the word [interruption],

B: Places, you can say

E: Places, yes.

D: They are really beautiful that she can't *um*

C: Count them! Ah actually, there is many places, but *um..* how long she will stay here?

A: She will stay may be for five years, ah five months [hhhhh laugh, everyone laughs].

B: I think it's suitable

A: I'll tell you what, remember girls that I want to show her something unique. For example 'Leptis Magna' will be good

D: Yeah.

B: Well, different buildings, different techniques, different shops.

C: Even the south of Libya, there is great places to visit, what do you think?

E: Every place in Libya ... is beautiful.

C: You can go with a [interruption],

D: In group

C: With a group not alone.

D: Yeah, not by herself.

C: As a campaign or something.

A: I am not sure about it.

E: But, I think it is better to walk a long, and interesting of quiet walking.

A: What do you mean by that? I mean what.. [Interruption],

E: *Ah*, I think, I meant to say if if walk a long like *ah ah* a long beaches.

D: Oh, do you mean she walks on the beach?

E: Yes.

D: And see the sunset.

E: And relax under the sun, and relax under the sun's...

B: *Um*, and I personally think that the best interesting and the best beautiful city is 'Shahat' [Cyrene], because there are many places and different places.

E: Yes, I agree with you.

B: And maybe, *um*, she can, *um* taste our popular, *um*

A: Dishes, you mean?

B: Food, oh!

A: Shahat [*Cyrene*], where is it specifically?

B: I don't know!!

D: Ah, in the east of Libya, *um*, near Benghazi, I think, right?

E: Yes, I agree with you.

C: By the way, don't forget to show her, *um*, the buildings which have been destroyed in the war, especially in Tripoli and Benghazi Street.

A: As a matter of fact, she asked me to take her there.

D: Especially, Tripoli street, it is really destroyed.

C: She'll like it.

B: And maybe, she wants to see the places after the revolution, *ah*, for example, as you said Tripoli Street.

E: And *um*..

A: in fact, she told me that she want to go to 'Bab Alaziziah' [place].

D: In Tripoli!! Ugly place

A: She wants to see it, but I'm thinking about taking her to 'Shahat' and to the mountains.

D: I think it is not ok to go there because the place is really dirty and there is a lot of mess there.

C: There is especially shop, I don't, *um* I can't [interruption],

D: Remember

C: I can't remember its name, in Tripoli, it's a kind of *ah* shopping thing, It opens every Tuesday, have many..

A: 'Soaq Altalath'.

C: Yeah.

B: Tuesday market [translation to English].

C: it's very popular, actually many people go there

D: It's very unique; I meant to say more special than the other shops.

C: Did you visit it?

D: No, I heard about it, but I want to visit it one day.

A: OK, thank you girls for your help, *um*, I really appreciate it a lot.

B: You are welcome.

4. Post-speaking task of the control group:

A western visitor to Libya

S1: Hello everybody, how are you?

- . Fine thank and you

S1: Fine, I am a visitor here, but actually I am so said because I did not have time to see the Libyan success. Can you talk about it?

S2: Yes, I can help you. Firstly, welcome to you here *um* I know many places *ah* in Libya for tourism *ah* like Sabrata. Sabrata *ah* has nice buildings like hotels and *ah* and nice beach and good accommodation and *ah* nice *ah* service so *ah* and *ah* has *ah* [interruption].

S3: Also, in Tripoli *ah* there is a nice hotels like *ah* ‘Almahari’ and hotel ‘seven Moon’ and there is a museum and old city in Tripoli and *ah* there is some restaurants so nice so beautiful fantastic like *ah um ah* ‘City moon’ and *ah* restaurant ‘Almuman’ and *ah* ‘Cook Door’ and ..

S1: Actually, I hope to visit it.

S3: In Tripoli or somewhere else?

S1: Actually, I wish to visit because I do not have time, but honestly you are good people. Libyan people are amazing.

S4: Thank you. Actually, we can talk about Misurata!

S1; Yes, the most important, I heard a lot about Misurata.

S4: Yes, Misurata *ah* near Tripoli, and *ah* have *ah* nice places. For example you can visit *ah* Tripoli Street especially *ah* after the war.

S1: Umha [agreeing and moves her head].

S4: And you can *ah* do some shopping for example, *ah* street in the street ‘Abdulla Alghareeb’ and you can *ah* see a lot *ah* of places also the beach have a good *ah*

S1: Yes, thank you so much

S2: You are welcome.

Appendix Q

Comments related to section 4.4.5, (p: 140-141)

A unique quality about this study is the attempt to address the issue of using CSs in IELTS testing criteria and the awareness of both staff and students of the embedding of CSs in tests such as IELTS. As teachers adopting such criteria in the curriculum maybe that makes their teaching more appropriate in helping the students to be aware of assessing fluency, the use of vocabulary grammar and CS in their speaking exam (Hughes 2002). Although, CSs are widely assessed in IELTS testing criteria, they are still not taught at language schools and universities in Libya. To make sure that some international institutions provide CSs training in their 'IELTS' or 'ELPP' (English Language Preparation Programme) courses, the researcher in the present study contacted some institutions such as the British council in Libya and some local international language schools here in Leicester e.g. East Midlands School of Business and Management (ESBM), Centre for English language learning (CELL) at DMU and language school in Leicester University (See appendix Q). The researcher asked language teachers in these institutions if they teach CS in your English lessons to international learners. If so, which communicative strategies do you use. It has to be said that out of the five contacts to obtain a response to only two institutes replied to the current researcher.

Noteworthy, the researcher in the current study provided teachers and learners with an overview of what CSs are, because there is often a blurring of the distinction between CS and CA (Communicative Approach to teaching). One of the teachers in the ESBM responded that CSs are delivered in her institution and said *"we always use communicative strategies when delivering a language programme. Communication is the most important part of any language course"*. She also explained that the purpose of using each strategy and why it is used. For instance, she said IELTS and ELPP of course require many different skills in grammar, listening and use of English all required but at the root of all language is communication. *"In an IELTS course we would typically use 'repetition' this is called 'drilling' in order to ensure correct pronunciation. Asking for Clarification, this is called 'concept checking questions' to make sure the learner is understanding"*. Even though the researcher in the present study explained to the teachers what CSs in teaching CS, the responses which he got still seem to suggest her understanding revolved around the approach to teaching rather than the teaching of CSs. This teacher did not understand the concept of CS because correct pronunciation is not CS her responses were more to do with teaching methodology. Even my supervisor in our first meeting he was not aware of the concept of CSs. He has been lecturing for 18 years, but it was a new idea for him.

Another teacher at DMU acknowledged that IELTS training courses are not provided as separate preparation courses in the CELL at DMU. He explained that *"we do sometimes have a weekly class dedicated to IELTS prep, but this is usually focused on reading and listening"*. He continued and said *"If you look at the Scenarios at the back of the Language Leader books, these often have the kinds of discourse skills you're talking about embedded in them, so the communicative strategies would be taught in context, but not generally as part of a 'communicative strategies' lesson"*. This means that in this language centre CSs are embedded as discourse skills in context such as 'Language Leader Books', but

not generally as part of a CS lesson. It is response indicated clearly that that he understood the difference between CS and CA because he pointed out that there is no explicit effort to teach CSs to students in the lesson in this university (DMU). It might be worth mentioning that, this element (using CSs in testing) has been dealt with in the current study from international perspective and Libyan perspective on how CSs been taught in IELTS training programmes and this is because if Libyan learners want to come to the UK for studying, they might need an IELTS preparation programmes. Therefore, it would be beneficial for IELTS providers all over the world to consider training language teachers to use CSs in testing criteria, this help their students to communicate effectively in English. In addition, if the teachers know that their students are taking IELTS exams then it is possibly better to do some CS training in their classes (cf. Hughes 2002).

On discovering that the international community included CSs in their assessment criteria this made me think that it is a valid learning strategy and raised the question why language teachers do not know about it. Also, why are CSs not embedded in the publishers' course books? Possibly, some people think that CSs are not real language, possibly because there is no real vocabulary involved, there is not concrete grammar involved and there is little interaction involved. When he was asked by the researcher why teachers did not refer to CSs explicitly in their teaching classes he replied that *"it depends on time and whether students are interested in them or not, it depends on their willingness to engage in the conversation and it depends on the level of the students"*. Also, he mentioned that *"the function of the conversation is important for example agreeing or disagreeing, but I would not spend much time on teaching them"* (See Phil's response above). As a matter of fact, this study attempted to prove that the teaching of CSs to language learners is an effective approach and it is worth considering including such strategies in the teaching and testing criteria. It might be interesting at what stage teachers and publishers accept the concept of CSs as a reality in learning and teaching or a valid methodology of strategy. How far do we have to go until CSs are explicitly gone to the teaching profession? This dissertation is trying pushing the agenda of teaching CSs forward. Possibly, twenty years ago there is no reference of CSs in any course books such as 'Headway' or previous books like 'Kernel Lessons' and 'Streamline English'. In addition, ten years ago there was mention of CSs in IELTS or other testing criteria and now they are embedded in many official criteria of assessment (Huang 2013), but there is a lack of awareness among the teachers and this dissertation is starting to do this i.e. pushing the agenda of teaching and learning CSs.

A number of responses

The following correspondences shed light on the teaching of CSs from teachers' perspectives, learners' perspectives and authors' perspectives.

Corresponding international institutions

Dear sir/Madam

My name is Yaseen Hmaid, I am a PhD student at DMU in Leicester in the UK. My domain of study is Applied Linguistics and I am investigating the impact of oral teaching communication strategies on English language learners in Libya. I would be very grateful if you could answer some questions related to my PhD programme and your responses are really crucial to me. I do believe that this institution provides courses in IELTS or ELPP (English Language Preparation Programme). If so, in your English language training programme, if someone comes to you to take English course here in this university, would you consider to provide communicative strategies training in your IELTS or ELPP training courses?

1. Do you teach communicative strategies in your English lessons to international learners? If so, which communicative strategies do you use? Example of some communicative strategies: Repetitions, Pause fillers. Asking for clarification, facilitating and circumlocution strategies.

2. do you focus on your IELTS preparation courses on communicative strategies? If so, to what extent?

I do appreciate your deeds.

Your Sincerely

Yaseen Hmaid

East Midlands School of Business and Management (ESBM) response

We always use communicative strategies when delivering a language programme. Communication is the most important part of any language course. IELTS and ELPP of course require many different skills –grammar, listening and use of English all required but at the root of all language is communication. In an IELTS course we would typically use ‘repetition’; this is called ‘drilling’ in order to ensure correct pronunciation. Asking for Clarification, this is called ‘concept checking questions’ to make sure the learner is understanding [understands the lesson]. And of course students work on stress and intonation to make sure their spoken English is communicated effectively.

Centre for English language learning (CELL) at DMU response

One of the main things to understand is that we don't run IELTS training courses here! However, as many students have to take external IELTS tests for visa purposes, we do sometimes have a weekly class dedicated to IELTS prep, but this is usually focused on reading and listening. If you look at the Scenarios at the back of the Language Leader books, these often have the kinds of discourse skills you're talking about embedded in them, so the communicative strategies would be taught in context, but not generally as part of a 'communicative strategies' lesson. I'll come down and show you in a minute!!

Follow up

Phil language Centre at DMU to Philip

Dear Phil

I would be very grateful if you provide me with more information which is related to the previous question that I had sent to you 'the use of communicative strategies in IELTS and ELPP training courses'.

You mentioned in your response to the question that communicative strategies are embedded in the 'Language Leader Books'.

Why it is not explicitly defined in Language Leader books that this communicative strategy that needs to be taught to your students in the teachers' book, even though it is part of the testing criteria? Why is that?

I appreciate your help.

Regards

Yaseen Hmaid

Personal meeting with Phil in the language centre in DMU

Why teachers did not refer to CSs explicitly in their teaching classes?

Phil: 'it depends on time and whether students are interested in them or not, it depends on their willingness to engage in the conversation and it depends on the level of the students'. Also, 'the function of the conversation is important for example agreeing or disagreeing, but I would not spend much time on teaching them'.

Responses from Libya "the cooperative teacher"

edgar malonzo

To Me

Sep 26, 2013

Hello Mr Yaseen. Just keeping in touch. How are you? Hope you and your family are ok there. i want to inform you that the language centre asked me to design a training program for the members of the quality assurance office. i got a bit of inspiration from your dissertation. Hence, I need to know the name of your university and its place to give appropriate credit for you. Hope to hear from you soon.

Regards,

ed

edgar malonzo

To Me

Apr 15, 2104 at 4:29 AM

Hello, I regret to inform you that I no longer teach Language Skills so I have no idea on its effectiveness among students. Nevertheless, when I used some of it in a training that I gave to non-English major learners in the Language Centre, they found them to be very helpful.

Apr 15 at 7:01 PM

Dear Ed

I am so glad to hear from you. I asked you if you taught CSs or some of them to the English language students in the English department before or not, as part of their course “spoken English”. If you did please let me know.

Regards

Yaseen

edgar malonzo

To Me

Apr 16, at 5:48 AM

Hello. When I was teaching Language Skills I, part of the syllabus in a lecture on Simple Conversations. It is in this part where some of the Communication Strategies that you tested were used. Majority of the students manifested improvement in their conversations during the assessment.

Regards,

Ed

Responses related to mapping the rubric criteria

From: Yaseen H <yaso_leo@yahoo.com>

Subject: Enquiry!!

To: "edgarmalonzo@yahoo.com" <edgarmalonzo@yahoo.com>

Date: Monday, February 11, 2013, 9:06 AM

Dear Edgard

How are you? I have started mapping the rubric criteria of the language skills test and it is quite hard for me to decide it without knowing some information. Therefore, I would be very grateful if you give some ideas about the following questions:

I do have questions recording the rubric for speaking test;

1. What learning material you used in teaching language skills?
2. What constitutes a pass mark?
3. How students can achieve 30 marks?
4. What is their incoming and outgoing level compared to international criteria e.g. IELTS?
5. For how many semesters do they study language skills?

The answer of your questions will help me to map the criteria which you used to determine the level of the students when it is compared with international tests.

Looking forward to hearing from you.

Regards

Yaseen Hmaid

Students response via Facebook



27/02/2014 11:39

[Yassin Hmaid](#)

معليش في سوال !!3 هههههه
What is the long term impact of teaching communication strategies? and ما هو الاثر الطويل
والقصير للأستراتيجيات عليهم؟



27/02/2014 11:59

Yassin Hmaid

شكرا مرة ثانية ههههه

2 March



02/03/2014 16:23

Salm At Taleb

السلام عليكم

يا أه



02/03/2014 16:26

Salem At Taleb

I printed ur Qs and I'll receive them tomorrow



06/03/2014 12:39

Wahbi McBayoow

السلام عليكم ومساء الخير .. دكتور ياسين ..



06/03/2014 12:41

Wahbi McBayoow

